Metropolitan Tourism Experience Development
Selected studies from the Tourism Network Workshop
of the RSA, held in Budapest 2015
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Selected studies from the Tourism Network Workshop of the Regional Studies Association, held in Budapest, Hungary, 2015

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Introduction

On January 28-30, 2015 Corvinus University of Budapest hosted the latest workshop of the Regional Studies Association’s Tourism Research Network. The event had been held previously in Izmir, Aalborg, Warsaw, Östersund, Antalya, Leeds and Vila-seca Catalonia.

The aim of the RSA research network is to examine tourism diversity from the perspective of regional development in order to identify current challenges and opportunities in a systematic manner, and hence provide the basis for a more well-informed integration of tourism in regional development strategies and move beyond political short-termism and buzzword fascination. In the frame of the network a series of workshops have been organised from various topics of destination management till rural tourism.

In the age of budget airlines and increased mobility, the importance for metropolitan areas of positioning themselves in an increasingly competitive environment where the boundaries between international tourism and local leisure are becoming blurred, has increased. Metropolitan areas are highly preferred targets for tourists owing to their diversified and concentrated attractions particularly cultural heritages and up-to-date events as well as to their business environment. They are the focal points of tourism in a lot of regions and countries. Beside the questions of local management and sustainability, the regional implications (not only for the neighbouring regions) are of crucial importance from the aspect of development opportunities and strategies. Another aspect of metropolitan tourism is connected to the local population, and the great variety of institutions and businesses linked to tourism system. The Budapest workshop aimed to discuss and exchange ideas, experiences, and research results about metropolitan tourism development and management. The core areas and their regions, as well as the relations and connections with regions outside of metropolitan areas as objects for destination development and management, were relevant for the workshop.

Ádám Ruszinkó, the deputy state secretary responsible for Hungarian tourism honoured the workshop to give an opening welcome speech. The keynote speeches explored various topics of metropolitan tourism, including network-based planning of sustainable metropolitan tourism by Bálint Kádár, regional development and policy issues of metropolitan tourism by Attila Korompay, and ethnic tourism and product development in metropolitan frames by Melanie Kay Smith. Thirty paper presentations covering different aspects of tourism and regional development enriched the two and a half day long programme. The paper presentations’ subjects covered a wide range of topics, from the philosophy of metropolitan culture through mega sport events to the newest trends of metropolitan tourism, such as sharing economy. The workshop was
structured in nine chaired sessions. Session ‘Emerging consumer trends of urban tourism’ discussed topics such as responsible tourism product development in Italy by Melissa Moralli and Chiara Rabbiosi, shared, co-created and customized services’ effect on tourist experience by Anita Zátori, and staged authenticity of a touristic space by Andrea Hubner.

Another session entitled ‘Tourism development in metropolitan areas’ included presentations about tourism product development and marketing of Sofia from business perception by Vasil Marinov, Elka Dogramadjieva, Mariana Assenova, Elena Petkova and Baiko Baikov, designing a transregional destination in Hungary - the Danube Limes in Hungary: a concept to integrate metropolitan, urban and rural areas by Tamás Balogh and Árpád Karsai, and metropolitan wellbeing and technology – opportunities in the Balkan region by Attila Horváth.

‘The impact of tourism in urban spaces’ session discussed topics such as urban culture by Matti Itkonen, urban resilience and tourism development in East Germany by Younkyoung Sung, touristification and the tourist trap: case study of Prague by Veronika Dumbrovská.

‘Festivals and gastronomy’ are important elements of urban and metropolitan tourism. In the session food markets: cases of Barcelona and Madrid by Montserrat Crespi Vallbona and Marta Domínguez Pérez, the case of Arguvan Türkü Festival by Gülşah Akkuş and Ülkü Akkuş, and urban gastronomic festivals as success factors by Darko Dimitrovski were analysed.

The second day workshop started with NGO and business case studies by Hungarian Tourism Ltd., while László Puczkó spoke about re-launching of the Liget project (the current museum mega project of Budapest).

The session ‘Destination image, branding and shared economy’ consisted of paper presentations of social media and of image creation for destinations, the case of Barcelona by Lluís Garay Tamajón and Gemma Cànoves Valiente, the role of the share economy for the future of metropolitan tourism by Natalie Stors and Andreas Kagermeier, and re-branding of the countryside Lenita Nieminen and Arja Lemmetyinen.

Another session put only Budapest into focus. Potentials of landscape based metropolitan tourism were analysed by Ágnes Sallay, Zs. Mikházi, S. Jombach, K. Filepné Kovács and I. Valánszki, the image of Budapest as the best river cruise port city by Melinda Jászberényi and Katalin Ásványi, and spa and hotel on the periphery of a metropolis: a case study of Aquaworld Resort Budapest by Attila Csaba Kondor, Tünde Szabó and Szabolcs Juhász.

The session ‘Sport and leisure tourism development in metropolitan areas’ looked at sport mega events in metropolitan areas by Marek W. Kozak, new
aboriginal partners in resort development: whistler and Winter Olympic Games legacies by Alison M. Gill, and tourism leisure shopping the case of the Rimini area by Chiara Rabbiosi.

The ‘Regional economy, development and wellbeing’ session focused on the differences in wellbeing attitudes between the residents of urban and rural regions in Balkan countries by Kornélia Kiss, Ivett Sziva, Melanie K. Smith, László Puczkó and Gábor Michalkó., development of regional economy by Ari Karppinen, Mervi Luonila and Arja Lemmetyinen, and the role of regional policy in the development of spas in Észak-Alföld region by Ferenc Mező and Zoltán Dorogi.

The topic of ‘Safety and technological development in tourism’ included safety audit process of tourism in European local authorities – EFUS project by Janez Mekinc, Rob Mawby and Mark Burton-Page, the impacts of the technological environment on the travel habits of Hungarian travellers by Judit Grotte, and regional distribution of Hungarian tourism by István Tózsa.

Lastly, the ‘Role of perception and interpretation in tourism’ session contained the place of modern interpretation in heritage attractions, through the case study of virtual museum of Herculaneum by Dorottya Bodnár, tourists’ perception of the metropolitan Cluj-Napoca, Romania by Lujza T. Cozma, and creative side of Budapest tourism offers by Csilla Petykó and Adrienn Nagy

The two and a half days long event ended at Friday noon with a brainstorming session, in frames of what three emerging workshop topics were discusses, led by Melanie K. Smith, Daniela Carl and Bálint Kádár. The aim of the evening programs e.g. river cruise sightseeing tour, gala dinner, besides recreation, was to form and strengthen the professional and social relations among the research network’s old and new members. Altogether almost fifty tourism experts, academics and practitioners attended the workshop. The Budapest event hosted attendants coming from 13 countries from Turkey to Canada. The following workshop of the RSA Tourism Network is due on 10-12th February, 2016 in Rimini, Italy, with a focus on heritage sites ‘Beyond the Great Beauty: Rescaling Heritage and Tourism.’

the Editors
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A network-based spatial planning method for sustainable urban tourism

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Tourists and locals moving in the city's public spaces are hard to distinguish, while the understanding and management of tourist space usage is essential to prevent problems such as congestion and functional touristification. New methods are proposed to measure tourist space usage, and to create a comparable urban model for pedestrian tourist movements, helpful in the planning of a sustainable tourist system in tourist-historic cities. The analysis of tourist space usage measured with the quantification of geo-tagged photography made the distribution of tourists in urban space comparable for Vienna, Prague and Budapest, while space syntax network calculations on their abstracted models of tourist space system highlighted two major development types. Vienna’s balanced development both in terms of urban planning and of tourism management resulted in a semi-lattice network where tourists are distributed ideally, mixing with local functions. Prague’s structure is more close to a tree-like graph, resulting in problems of congestion and segregation. Budapest is a hybrid system, where Pest developed enormously in the last decade into a semi-lattice sub-system, proving how planning and urban design can have a large effect on tourist systems.

Introduction

Sustainable tourism in multifunctional tourist-historic cities

Tourists and locals mostly move undistinguishably in urban centres, having different motivations to be there, but all consuming the spaces, services and experiences a city has to offer. In a tourist-historic city (Ashworth & Turnbridge, 1990) the majority of attractions are monuments scattered in a historical urban layouts having an evolved and protected morphology, used also by the local community with their own infrastructures, businesses and cultural functions. The economic benefits of visitors spending their discretionary incomes at a destination are evident, but tourism can also have severe costs. European cities struggle to make their tourist offer attractive by improving the pedestrian access in the centres, by developing the retail offers and services and by refurbishing streets and historical buildings. But such interventions sometimes unintentionally lead to a process described as 'Museumification' or 'Disneyfication' (McNeill, 1999), when local urban life becomes crowded out by tourism (Maggi & Fredella, 2010; Popp, 2012; van der Borg, Costa, & Gotti, 1996). Such processes are unsustainable not only for the local society, but also for the overall tourism industry of the city. As more and more visitors come to
see the main attractions, those longer staying tourists who seek for the unique urban character and services of a city will also be crowded out, lowering the quality of the destination and the economic benefits in a vicious circle (Russo, 2002).

Such processes and their negative effects were described by scholars, both analysing the effects on locals' (Gilbert & Clark, 1997; Deichmann, 2002) and on visitors' (Riganti & Nijkamp, 2008; Simpson, 1999) attitudes. Some researchers tried to define a “tourist carrying capacity’ (TCC), calculating the limits of the resources in different destinations (Canestrelli & Costa, 1991; O’Reilly, 1986). The TCC model is widely used (Coccossis, Mexa, Collovini, Parpaires, & Konstandoglou, 2001; Jurado et al., 2012; Maggi & Fredella, 2010; Saenz-de-Miera & Rosselló, 2012), refined and combined with other methods, like the “tourism area life cycle’ model (Butler, 2011; Singh, 2011). Still, no works attempted to contribute to the TCC model with specific spatial aspects of tourism in cities. Only the overall arrival numbers and the most critical points of congestion are analysed, while the distribution of tourists in the urban spaces should reveal much more on the dynamics of local-tourist systems and conflicts.

Today many European city centres are developing a complex pedestrian public space network with many attraction points in it, but the ideal structure of such systems is still not clear, and the effectiveness of these networks is hard to measure or compare. A model describing these networks inside the limitations of the existing morphology could improve the efficacy of new developments and could help to determine why the same number of tourists causes overcrowding and conflicts with the locals in some cities while in others there are no visible problems.

**Measuring visitors’ space usage in the tourist-historic city**

The difficulties in developing a spatial model for urban tourism derive from the fact that tourists use urban environments in similar ways all other users do, therefore their quantification is extremely difficult (Law, 1994, pp. 154–159). It was already argued by Stansfield that urban tourism is not quantifiable, therefore ignored by researchers who could immerse themselves in the more measurable rural tourism (Stansfield, 1964). The lack of data being quantitative and accurate at the same time is also the reason why comparative, or ‘multiple city studies’ are rare in the field of urban tourism, and even the existing ‘...tend to be more narrowly focused and examine a specific aspect of a broader problem...’ (D. G. Pearce, 2001). Beside the few examples collected by Pearce some studies comparing Hong Kong and Singapore (Henderson, 2002) and works by van der Borg comparing cultural tourism in some European cities are relevant (Russo & van der Borg, 2002; van der Borg et al., 1996). These either compare arrival and hotel numbers; aspects of the demand side of tourism, or just have a focus on the
impact to residents’ attitudes, but do not compare geographical aspects. How the movements of tourists in cities can be measurable?

The classic method of questionnaires, time-space diaries filled out by tourists bought data on visitors' gaze in urban space: 11 movement styles were described analysing the movement patterns of tourists in Hong Kong (McKercher & Lau, 2008; McKercher, Wong, & Lau, 2006); Shoval & Raveh (2004) could categorize clusters of attractions in Jerusalem, visited by tourists with different characteristics; Hayllar & Griffin (2005) could define the most important themes in tourist experiences related to the physical environment and atmosphere of The Rocks district in Sydney. The use of Global Positioning Systems (GPS) or mobile phone cell-information in tracking tourists allowed a more precise measuring of tourists' movements, defining patterns in space and time (Shoval & Isaacson, 2007, 2010). Pettersson & Zillinger (2011) combined GPS tracking and questionnaires to gather information on tourists' experiences in relationship of their movements at a sports event. Modsching, Kramer, Hagen, & Gretzel (2008) used GPS tracking data to trace the activity areas of tourists, drawing the most visited hubs and paths in the German city of Görlitz. Shoval (2008) used 3D bar diagram representations of tourist activities on the map showing the intensity of visitors' activity in the Old City of Akko. High resolution spatial and temporal data collected with GPS tracking and elaborated in GIS systems made possible to analyse and compare the spatio-temporal patterns of first time and repeat visitors to Hong Kong (Mckercher, Shoval, Ng, & Birenboim, 2012; Shoval, McKercher, Ng, & Birenboim, 2011). A comparative study of Sydney and Melbourne recorded the track, speed and transport methods of visitors (Edwards & Griffin, 2013). These methods enabled the collection and analysis of precise data on the spatial behaviour of tourists. Still, a global method to measure tourist activity in cities is missing as the number of agents involved in such researches was limited, and methods varied from case to case.

In this paper an attempt is made to use large databases of geographically positioned tourist photography uploaded to image sharing websites (Kádár & Gede, 2013; Kádár, 2014) to construct an abstract model of space usage. With enough data on spaces visited – in this case photographed by tourists – a spatial model of urban spaces used by these tourists could be constructed.

**Modelling visitors’ space usage in the tourist-historic city**

The basic model of urban tourism set up by Ashworth & Turnbridge (1990) was further developed, but still a coherent model to analyse and compare tourists’ space usage in tourist-historic cities is missing. While researchers like Pearce (1998, 1999, 2008) analysed the supply side of tourism in cities, recent works helped by GPS tracking of tourists focused on the demand side, the behaviour of tourists. Recent work by Grinberger, Shoval, & McKercher (2014) made steps to
conceptualise the behaviour of individual tourists, identifying three different types of strategies in the consumption of time and space in Hong Kong. McArdle, Demšar, van der Spek, & McLoone (2014) compared walking speeds, accelerations and stops of pedestrians in Delft, identifying different trajectory clusters. These studies all seek a model of tourism geography based on the hypothesis that tourists prefer to walk between the places of interest in a city (Law, 1994, p. 128). Even if pedestrian exploration is limited by physical fitness, it is still the most used transport method between the destinations in a dense city centre (Lew & McKercher, 2006; Richter, 2010), and the presence of tourists on the streets of a city affects the perception of tourism the most. A comparable model of the tourist space systems of cities should therefore be based on an accurate description of the network of the public spaces and tourist places accessed by tourists on foot.

During a city visit patterns of tourists’ movements are influenced by their original mental maps based on the information they gathered on the destination before the trip, which will be consequently shaped by the same trip. Few studies analysed the cognitive mapping of visitors (P. L. Pearce & Stringer, 1991), but it can be stated that mental maps of tourists are pretty much the same Kevin Lynch (1960) originally have described. Lynch already argued that visitors, in contrast to residents, initially rely on landmarks to orient themselves. Cognitive maps of tourists will get richer by getting to know connecting paths and finally having an extensive knowledge of a district. Walmsley & Jenkins (1992) verified such process of environmental learning described by the anchor point theory, and they added that the initial spatial maps are replaced by sequential style maps, where the network of paths connecting nodes become the most important characteristics of mental maps. They also noted how later the original landmarks might turn out to be used as nodes, so these two categories can overlap. Therefore urban tourists’ movements can be described with networks or graphs, as they move between nodes on edges.

Networks have the advantage to be comparable and measurable. Urban systems have been often described as networks (Dupuy, 2008). It was Alexander (1965) who first used graphs to describe the nature of urban spaces and functions in his paper: 'A City is Not a Tree'. In fact Alexander notes the disadvantages of the tree structure – where there is only one path from a point to another, a typical modernist urban arrangement – while he points out how classical multifunctional cities have semi-lattice structures – where there are multiple choices to get from one node to another. His work and the mathematical approach to urban structures has inspired many scholars, trying to describe the complex networks of cities (Salingaros, 2005).

Gospodini (2001) introduced the idea of modelling urban spaces used by tourists as graphs. Her study relied much on the principles of Alexander in defining how
a tree structure is less fortunate than a semi-lattice, stating that the latter is more attractive to tourists as it offers more choices of exploration, therefore more freedom, an essential value in leisure activities. Gospodini proposed to use the method of analysing syntactic space systems introduced by Hillier (1996) to model the tourist space system. This proposal have been considered by some scholars (Edwards & Griffin, 2013), but no real calculations have been made so far in lack of accurate quantitative data on all public spaces used by tourists.

Modelling the spatial system of real urban environments used by tourists with such method, therefore analysing the connectivity of attractions with space syntax will result in the numerical expression of the syntactic depth of the resulting graphs. It is assumed that the application of such a model to tourist-historic cities will show fragmented integration cores and give higher syntactic depth values in cities with reported cases of tourist congestion than in cities with no reported problems related to tourism.

**Three Central-European capital cities**

In this paper the tourist space systems of three Central European capital cities are described and compared. Vienna, Prague and Budapest have a similar offer of monuments, historical urban environments and cultural events. They draw tourists who seek historical urban environments, cultural events and evidences of a complex history of kings and emperors, a mixture of cultures and life on both sides of the Iron Curtain.

The number of visitors is also relevant for the comparison: in 2013 tourists spent 13.5 million bed nights in Vienna, 14.65 million in Prague, but only 7.8 million in Budapest (TourMIS, 2014). Budapest was well ahead in the 1980's, when 8-9 million tourists' bed nights were registered, almost double than in Vienna and almost ten times more than in Prague (Figure 2). The three cities have different experiences in their recent historical development and with the tourist use of their central spaces.

Vienna built its tourist infrastructure evenly and the number of visitors grew in steady pace: around 4 million bed nights had been registered yearly in the 1970's, 5 to 6 in the 1980's, around 7 million in the 1990's growing to over 10 million in the years 2003 to 2008. This recent growth in visitor numbers was anticipated and accompanied by some important developments in the tourist network of the city, among others the newly built Museum Quartier, and the totally refurbished Albertina. There are historical urban compositions with exclusive touristic use, like the sites that best portray the touristic brands of 'Capital of Habsburgs' and 'Capital of Music', but between these attractions all public spaces of the centre offer a mixture of services for tourists and locals alike. The tourist city and the business district meet in Vienna at the banks of the Danube Canal, which is also a developing leisure district with new bars and
artificial beaches, used by locals and tourists alike (Hatz, 2008). The centre of Vienna is considered to be a premium environment for living, where tourist uses do not affect the services of locals.

Figure 1 – Tourist overcrowding in Prague (photo by author)

Prague in contrast faced drastic changes in the use of its historic core. The city had only a moderate tourism industry before 1989, but it became the most visited destination of the Central and Eastern European region (not counting Berlin) in one decade after the fall of the Iron Curtain (TourMIS, 2014). The beauties of the 'City of a hundred spires' enchanted millions of tourists, and the new free economy served these visitors where they concentrated most, around the main sites of attraction. The restitution of buildings in the centre to the ancestors of the original owners (re-privatisation) helped this process, as tourism related services generated as much as 50 times higher revenues than the original function, as housing rents were regulated administratively (Sýkora, 1999). No professional or social will existed in this era of liberalisation to regulate the spatial or economic arrangement of the growing tourist industry (Maier, 1998). This fast process led to socio-economical tensions in the centre described by many scholars (Cooper & Morpeth, 1998; Deichmann, 2002; Hoffman & Musil, 1999, 2009; Johnson, 1995; Simpson, 1999). The most obvious result was the fast drop in the numbers of local population of the centre (Ourednicek & Temelová, 2009), most visible around the 'King's Way' (Figure 1), a highly overcrowded succession of streets connecting all main monuments (Simpson, 1999).
Budapest is interesting for the changes in its tourist space system. The centre of Pest saw a comprehensive revitalisation process in the last decade, which extended the network of public spaces with pedestrian priority. The tourists’ overcrowding of the main shopping street Váci utca, the only pedestrian street in the centre until the mid-1990s decreased in recent years and retail units with brands preferred by locals opened in the place of some souvenir shops (Rátz, Smith, & Michalkó, 2008). The extensive development of the centre of Pest in the past 10 years is bringing its results in the past few years, delivering arrival numbers growing faster than in the other two cities (Figure 2).

![Figure 2 – Bed nights spent in the three cities between 1985 and 2013](image)

The analysis of differences between the graph models of tourist activities in these historic urban cores could give answers to some questions. Why does the tourist use of central Prague create social problems and lead to the reduction of local inhabitants and the tourists' experiences when the same amount of tourists do not impede the use of Vienna's centre by locals? How did the development of new pedestrian streets lead to diminishing tourist congestion in the main shopping street of Budapest?

**Methods**

**A measurable urban network of tourism**

To compare the effectiveness of the networks of urban spaces used by tourists, an abstract space model is needed. By combining the Space Syntax method of spatial analysis (Hillier, 1996) with a spatial system corresponding to the mental maps (Lynch, 1960) of tourists defined by their actual urban movements, the method proposed by Gospodini (2001) was further developed to analyse the tourist space system of urban areas (Kádár, 2013). The method of evaluation is
also based on graph calculations, using the Agraph software in node mode (Manum, Rusten, & Benze, 2005), capable to calculate integration values from complex graph depth analysis with the method used by space syntax, but using constructed graphs of pedestrian tourist space usage.

The graph of tourist space usage consists of points of interests (nodes) and pedestrian street infrastructure connecting them (edges). This abstraction was selected since these two elements can be clearly separated and defined (measured) and as they also describe the complex movements and activities a tourist performs in an urban situation. The nodes are the tourist attractions, to make all graphs comparable; the first 40 most visited interconnected points of interest were selected from each of the cities. The points of interests are connected by the network of urban spaces (edges), defined by the urban morphology and by the present use of the street infrastructure. The result is a graph and the calculations of depth regarding its nodes. To compare the graphs of the different cities the integration value \( i \) calculated by Agraph was used, based on the mean depth (MD). The methods of calculation are the following (Manum et al., 2005):

\[
\begin{align*}
i &= 1 / RA \\
RA &= 2 * (MD - 1) / (K - 2) \\
MD &= TD / (K - 1)
\end{align*}
\]

where RA is the relative asymmetry, K is the number of nodes and TD is the total depth for a node, which is the sum of the depths between a node and all other nodes. The depth is the number of nodes the minimum path – the shortest way – between the node and another node has. The integration value \( i \) describes the level of integration of one node into the system (Hillier, 1996. pp. 77-109). Fewer connections are needed to go from one node to each of the others, the higher the integration of that node will be. The mean integration value together with minimum and maximum values shows the overall connectedness of the system.

**The nodes – using tourist photography from image hosting web services**

In urban tourism the monuments, viewpoints and places of events are the primary objects of consumption (Ashworth & Turnbridge, 1990; Urry & Larsen, 2011; Urry, 1990). These points are marked on tourist maps, included in guided tours, and well known through post-card photographs. To visit these places is usually the primary motivation of a tourist who comes to the city the first time. These are places where tourists photograph themselves, creating records of their visit, a final proof that they did consume the experience given by the city (Urry & Larsen, 2011).
While the role of tourist photography in the experience had been analysed by many scholars (Garrod, 2009; Jenkins, 2003; Larsen, 2006), the number of photographs of different sites have been rarely used to create statistical data concerning the interest of individual sites (Girardin, Fiore, Blat, Ratti, & Dal Fiore, 2008). With digital imaging and GPS enabled geo-referencing a relevant number of photographs with precise geographical data is uploaded and shared on social websites like Panoramio.com or Flickr.com. The motivation of tourists to record and share consumed personal experiences by their own photography meets well the possibilities offered by these online services. Some cameras (including the growing number of smart phones) have built-in GPS antennas, allowing the automation of geotagging, while the manual placement of singular images on a map is also possible on these sites. The website Flickr.com (http://www.flickr.com) is the most cited source of tourism related photography (Urry & Larsen, 2011). It hosted 6 billion images in August 2011, and this number is increasing by 3.5 million every day. The API of Flickr.com makes possible the analysis of all of these images (Gede, 2013; Popescu & Grefenstette, 2009). More than 200 million of the images were geotagged in 2012. Cities have hundred thousands of geotagged images in their areas, Budapest had more than 300,000 in 2012. These numbers are statistically relevant, even if the users of Flickr.com are not necessary representative of all tourists visiting a destination. Studies show how the users of Flickr are younger than the average, but they are distributed in more age-groups than users of other social media (Lo, McKercher, Lo, Cheung, & Law, 2011; Nov & Ye, 2010).
Gede (2012, 2013) developed a method to precisely visualize and measure photographs of tourists, separated from the ones of locals. This method has been further refined (Kádár & Gede, 2013), and used to retrieve data for Vienna, Prague and Budapest for a comparative study on their tourist attractions (Kádár, 2014). The numeric results and visualizations of this study are used in this paper to retrieve data on these CE cities from the years 2000 to 2011.

From the generated maps the nodes of the graphs of tourist space systems were drawn. The nodes represented on the graph are not necessarily individual attractions, but continuous public spaces where tourists can visit and photograph attractions without moving further. Points were defined where at least one attraction was photographed; the total number of photos was higher than 50 and the pictures were taken in a range of maximum 100 meters (Figure 3).

**The edges – pedestrian urban spaces**

Tourists gaze through the streets, squares and passages between two attractions. Visitors decide which route to take with the help of tourist maps and signs if there is no visual connection to the next site. An attractive pedestrian street with quality shops and visible street life is a visual magnet in itself as tourists know that these streets usually take them to another attraction and will decide to proceed gazing on them if the other options are less attractive (Zacharias, 2001).
In the presented graph model of the pedestrian space network of tourists the edges are defined by some simple rules coming from the behaviour of the majority of tourists, to make the different urban layouts comparable. Nodes within a distance of no more than 500 meters were connected where barrier-free pedestrian access is available and visible (Figure 4). The 500 meters rule is important to define the integral pedestrian network, as a walk longer than this distance without any further attractions is rare among tourists. Streets longer than this distance are marked on the model only if they themselves are a special experience, like a shopping street (Vienna - Naschmarkt, Budapest - Váci utca, or Prague - Wenceslas square), the crossing of a bridge with nice views (Budapest - Margaret bridge or Prague - Cechuv Bridge), or walking in a park (Vienna - Stadtpark and the Ring, or Budapest - Gellért Hill). In these cases the path itself can be a node in the graph, as it is an attraction itself. The mapping of the public spaces where tourists move were made with multiple field trips to these cities between 2009 and 2012, helped by the data of the quantification of geotagged photography and by literature.

**Results**

**Comparing Vienna and Prague – a semi-lattice network and a tree-like structure**

Vienna and Prague attract similar numbers of visitors, but these tourists move in the two cities in very different patterns. Budapest had half of the visitors of its rivals, therefore here a direct comparison is not topical, but the analysis of the changes in time can deliver new results, as the development of the urban spatial system was the largest in the case of the Hungarian capital. The graphs of pedestrian tourist space usage for these cities were created, and the integration values of the graphs were calculated using Agraph software. The lowest $i$ values were measured for Prague, the highest $i$ values for Vienna, and a value in-between for Budapest. The structure of the graph of Vienna is similar to a semi-lattice with few branches extending outwards the integrated core. The structure of the graph of Prague consists of few linear elements (axis) intersecting each other at only few nodes, resulting in many tree structured sub-graphs. Budapest has a hybrid structure more similar to the tree structure of Prague in the Buda side and to the semi-lattice form of Vienna in the Pest side (Figure 5, Figure 6, Figure 7).

The historical centre of Vienna is a compact urban form on the right bank of the Danube canal. The medieval town was built upon the ruins of the Roman military camp Vindobona. The geometrical street layout of the original Roman camp, the intensive developments of the baroque period and some minor interventions at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries made the street pattern of the centre of Vienna less irregular than the ones of a grown medieval
city. St. Stephen's Cathedral marks the geometrical centre of the city, today a series of pedestrian streets starting here connect the main attractions of the centre. These and the attractions of the Ring form the main tourist network. The medieval city walls were demolished and replaced by the urban composition of the Ring in the years 1860-80. This ring road organized all major institutions of both civic and monarchical origin, while it created a long awaited connecting element between the old town and the dense urban areas developing around it. Vienna has important tourist sites outside the Ring, like the Museum Quartier, the Naschmarkt market and the Belvedere palace, all connected to the pedestrian network. Others, like the Prater or the Schönbrunn palace fall out of the area approachable on foot from the centre.

![Pedestrian tourist space system](image)

*Figure 5 - The pedestrian tourist space system of Vienna in 2011 and in 1989. Integration values elaborated with Agraph*

The overall system is balanced, having well interconnected points. The centre didn't change much in the past decades, nor did the touristic offers. Exceptions are some new leisure facilities on the Danube Canal, and the establishment of the Museum Quartier. Vienna has a mean integration value of 6.16 for its pedestrian tourist system. The space syntax graph shows that the most integrated nodes in the network are around the Opera, which has an integration value of
9.62. Nodes around the centre all have values above 7.00, showing the area that is the potential centre for the tourist network of Vienna. Minimum values are all above 4, except for the southern end of the Belvedere (Figure 5).

The city of Prague is smaller in size and in population than its regional rivals, but the medieval centre consisting originally of four towns exceeds them in size. The city is divided into two by the Vltava River. The castle district on the hilltop – Hradčany – and Mala Strana – Lesser Quartier – are on the western side of the river where the street patterns and the points of access to the castle are much determined by the hilly topography. Staré Město – the Old Town – and Josefov – the Jewish Quarter – are limited by the eastern banks of the Vltava and by a semi-ring road, built in 1871 to replace the original baroque town walls. This ring is not comparable to the one in Vienna as it is not an important organizer of places of interest. There are three other main axes of tourist flow, all historical urban compositions. The Karlova or King's Way is the oldest route of medieval origin linking the Old Town from the Municipal House to the Lesser Town and the Hradčany Castle; nearly all important tourist sites of the western side are accessible from it. Another axis starts at the 750 meter long Wenceslas square crowned by the National Museum, and finishes in the Checuv Bridge and the hill with a monumental park on the other side of the river. Tourists move from Wenceslas square through Old Town square, and they continue on Parizská to the sites of the Jewish quarter in Josefov. The river is the third axial element that connects the main points of interest, most of which were placed on the riverbanks after conscious urban planning in the past centuries. Tourists look for reflected views of the city and visit the theatres, concert halls and museums on the embankments, while the main tourist site of the city is the Charles Bridge where the Karlova axis crosses the river.

Figure 6 - The pedestrian tourist space system of Prague in 2011 and in 1989. Integration values elaborated with Agraph
This network remains much less integrated than the one of Vienna (Figure 6). The most integrated points are on the Karlova, from the Charles Bridge to the Old Town square (6.50-7.05): in fact all tourists pass this section at least once. The minimum value is below 3, while 30% of all nodes have integration values below 4 (the minimum in Vienna!). The mean integration value of 4.75 shows that this city has fewer options and new spaces for tourists to discover than in Vienna or Budapest, while visiting the same amount of attractions. The reasons for such a low values are first of all the special morphology of the city with the topographical limitations on the west side of the river, the river itself, the labyrinthine medieval street pattern of the Old Town with one main path marked, and the lack of a ring road on the eastern side of Prague to link the touristic axes described before.

**Following the changes in the pedestrian network of Pest: developing from tree-like to a semi-lattice tourist system**

In the case of Budapest the most interesting aspect of the graphs of pedestrian space usage is the change in time. The tourist space systems of all three cities have been calculated for 2011, but also for 1989, to see the development processes. While mean integration values were 10% lower in 1989 than in 2011 for Vienna (5.57) and same for Prague (4.28), Budapest faced a development of more than 40% in this aspect (3.82 to 5.41). It is well visible from the graphs of Budapest that all of this development had happened on the Pest side of the city, mostly in the past 10 years (Rátz et al., 2008), where the ‘Heart of Budapest’ programme finally interconnected most pedestrianised streets in 2011. The Buda side remained mostly unchanged, and this is the part of the tourist system where the difficult topography allowed only tree-like branches of the overall network to be used by tourists (Figure 7).

As the development of Pest as a process is more interesting than the direct comparison with Vienna and Prague, therefore a sub-graph for only Pest have been created with all changes between 1989 and 2014 marked (Figure 8). Data form the quantification of geotagged photography retrieved until 2011 was completed with the new developments opened between 2012 and 2014. This sub-graph finishes on the Danube bridges, which are marked as points of interest. It is assumed that tourists conceive Buda and Pest as different districts in their mental maps, passing through bridges should also mean to end a visit at Pest, and start a new one in Buda. The 40 points most visited in Pest were selected for analysis, and the graph of 1989 had been compiled by subtracting all developments of the past 25 years, and adding the points of interest accessible back then, which are not any more visited by the majority of tourists or are not comfortably accessible without public transport any more. The graph of 1989 shows a tree-like structure only interconnected in some parts of the centre, with
a mean integration value of 4.17. The contemporary graph shows a semi-lattice like structure with $i=6.37$, better than Vienna as an overall system. It must be noted though, that this sub-system cannot be directly compared with a complete city-wide system of Vienna.

Pest has morphology similar to that of central Vienna. The medieval city walls surrounded a compact city of similar size than in the Austrian capital, and the patterns of the closed urban blocks defining their growth in the second half of the nineteenth century were also similar. However, the master plan of 1870 followed different principles than the Viennese model. New radial avenues and ring roads were traced, with main institutions scattered in this system as decorative landmarks, mainly among the main Boulevards and Avenues. All of these main roads have car traffic on them today, but the wide pedestrian walkways ensure accessibility by foot, therefore these never ceased to be the main axes of pedestrian movement. However, the decline of services and shops on many of these streets and the extreme noise pollution made tourists and local shoppers alike to avoid many sections of these historic spaces.
The Great Boulevard marks the edge of the city centre used by tourists, hosting many important palaces and institutions. This second ring road has lost much of its retail potential since 1990s; therefore portions of it are presented as tourist paths only on the graph of 1989. Some popular sites on this second ring road like the Museum of Arts and Crafts, the Western Railway Station or the Margit Bridge do not appear as parts of the connected graph as no pedestrian friendly roads help to span the distances of more than 500 meters to the first attractions of the inner city.

Figure 8 - The tourist space system of Pest in 2011 and in 1989 with the paths used by tourists compared to the edges of the abstracted graph. Integration values calculated by Agraph

The most compact and integrated part of the city is the centre of medieval origins, and some extensions of its network. The inner ring, the Small Boulevard starting in central Deák Square (P0) has always had a distinct tourist use connecting sites such as the Great Synagogue (P16). Inside its semicircle two routes leading from north to south form the spine of the pedestrian network. The first is the Danube promenade, partly developed for pedestrian use between the Chain bridge and the Erzsébet Bridge, the second is Váci utca – the first
pedestrian street in the 1980's (P3), extended in 1993 to the south (P25) until the Central Market hall (P4).

Many developments started in the early 2000s changed this initial system. New points of tourists’ interests were created: museums (House of Terror, 2002, P29), places of memory (Shoe Memorial of the Holocaust, 2005, P11), places and entire districts of entertainment (Szimpla Kert opened in 2001 in the hip Jewish district, P30), public spaces refurbished for pedestrian use (Király Street from 2004 – P20 – Mikszáth Square with bars – P32 – or Ráday Street with restaurants – P33). These nodes did extend the space system used by tourists but didn't make it more integrated, as most of the new attractions were outside the original system, extending it in size but not in interconnectivity.

The most important spatial improvements that made the pedestrian system of the centre more interconnected were developed in the past five years, linked to the municipal programme “The Heart of Budapest’. The base was an urban design competition held in 2006, aiming at an integrated, networked vision for the future use of the inner city. The main spine the programme became the newly refurbished “Main Street’ (built in 2010-11), leading from Szabadság Square (P9 connected to the Parliament, (P10, recently extended with a visitor centre, P39) to Kálvin Square (P14). This pedestrian priority axis relieves the tourist traffic of Váci utca, connecting most of the other routes of tourist use. Today the inner city of Pest has an exemplary pedestrian network, forming a true semi-lattice structure. Maximum integration values are between 9 and 10, growing from 6.49 at Deák Square in 1989.

Other developing area is the so-called Jewish District where popular ruin-pubs (like the most visited Szimpla kert) draw young tourists and locals alike. The reopening of the Gozsdu passages (P27) and some pedestrian streets around them in 2009, and the newly refurbished Kazinczy Street (2011, P30) connected this district to Király Street (P20). However, the present accessibility of this once quiet residential district bought a fast and uncontrolled development of nightlife, resulting in the new party district of Budapest. The hundreds of bars and clubs opened here generated growing conflicts with the basic residential functions of this area.

Conclusions

Network-based spatial planning as a tool to achieve sustainable tourism

These three Central European cities have a similar number of attractions and similar cultural settings, but the patterns of tourist space usage and the effect of tourism on the social-economic system is quite different, just as their development models in the past 25 years. The unique morphology of each urban centre and the different patterns of arrangement of their main attractions define
the tourist space systems. The development of new attractions and new connections inside the morphological constrains of a historic city allow planning tools to alter the space system tourists use, and therefore to avoid congestion and segregation of tourists. The graph model of the system of public spaces used by tourists is a new tool to analyse tourism-related developments in cities.

The main difference between the integrated Viennese network and the tree-like tourist system of Prague comes from the different morphologies of the two cities. Still, the analysis in different historical moments of the tourist system of Budapest revealed how a tree-like structure can also develop – partly – into a well-connected network in the form of a semi-lattice. The topographical constrains are hard to overtake, so the Castle hills of Prague and Buda will hardly be as connected as the flat centre of Vienna or Pest, and a river dividing a city also poses limits. But new pedestrian friendly connections or new attractions can be placed according to careful planning even in the protected morphology of the historical city. The example of Vienna shows how tourism management and planning integrated into the urban panning practice of the city since 1955 secured a sustainable growth of tourism, integrated in space, and integrated into the daily life of locals as well (WienTourismus, 2003, 2005, 2009). On the other hand Prague followed an extremely liberal development in its tourism industry in the 1990s and 2000s, where planning was not considered to be needed for tourism. Hotels, restaurants and other tourist infrastructure concentrated beside the main tourist attractions, as the building stock of the centre was put on market after their restitution just when tourists started to discover the previously inaccessible city. The tourist system therefore did not extend off the beaten track, resulting in few axes used by all tourists flooding the city. The result is the decreasing use of Prague's centre by locals and diminishing touristic experiences in the overcrowded streets (Deichmann, 2002; Simpson, 1999; Cooper & Morpeth, 1998; Johnson, 1995).

In the case of Budapest newly refurbished public spaces on the Pest side and new elements in the tourist offer did result in a more integrated tourist use of the centre of Budapest, a city which had similar morphological problems as Prague until these well planned developments occurred. One of the most evident changes is the appearance of retail aiming at locals in Váci utca, the main touristic route of Pest. Global fashion brands attracting a wide range of local customers in most European metropolises such as Zara, H&M and Promod (present in the central pedestrian streets of Vienna, but not of Prague) appeared in Váci utca only in the past few years when the refurbishment of many other pedestrian streets in the central area were under development (Rátz et al., 2008). The returning local use of the once congested Váci utca shows how more interconnections between the major attractions will ease the pressure on the most overcrowded public spaces. The variety of choices Budapest has to offer, the living nature of the inner city – definitely not museumificated – and the
positive reviews on international travel forums in the past few years which went hand-in-hand with booming arrival numbers show that the Hungarian capital is developing in the right direction. The integrated tourist space system of Pest is an ideal one for the tourist consumption of the urban experience, but also ideal for the local consumption. Tourist congestion is not relevant in Pest, the only problematic case is the newly booming party district, which has conflicts related to functional segregation between locals and partying visitors, not to spatial congestion.

It is a question whether the segregated tourist use of the most visited historic cities can be reversed with network-based spatial planning, or it is already too late for Venice (Russo, 2002), Salzburg (Keul & Kühberger, 1997), Florence (Popp, 2012), Bruges (Neuts & Nijkamp, 2011), Prague (Simpson, 1999) or other cities facing touristification and museumification. Also it must be noted that factors less influenced by urban space can also lead to conflicts and unsustainability in tourism. However, network-based spatial planning for tourism can be a tool to avoid future congestion problems and the spatial segregation of tourists and locals in a developing destination. The example of Budapest shows how the network of public spaces and attractions of tourists’ interest can be developed in a sustainable way, making the system evolve and grow as arrival numbers increase.

**Literature**


The paper uses recent data from 2013 and 2014 regarding overnight stays in Hungary and Austria respectively to find out if there are any regional concentrations of tourism in Hungary. Some interesting questions are raised: what is the reason for the big difference between Vienna’s and Budapest’s roles played in the Austrian and Hungarian regional distribution of tourism, when the two cities are very similar and their hinterlands also share common characteristics? The paper finally presents possible types of the regional distribution of Hungarian tourism, where the main finding is that accessibility is subdued to other attractive factors making up a destination in the countryside.

Introduction: Vienna and Budapest

Vienna and Budapest can be regarded as twin cities on the Danube in Central Europe. Their size, population are similar, they are both capital cities and their background countries are also similar both in territory and number of inhabitants. They also share a more or less common history, similar culture, traditions, and architectural style. Metropolitan tourism plays an important role in their economy attracting millions of visitors each year. Besides the immense tourist attraction of Vienna and Budapest, the two countries, Austria and Hungary both have a single attraction distributed evenly all over the two countries. It is the high mountain landscape offering winter sport facilities in the winter, and Alpine hiking possibilities in the summer half year. The attraction of the Hungarian landscape, also evenly distributed in the countryside, offers hot medicinal water for spa tourism, wellness and bathing all through the year (see Figure 1).

Despite the many similarities, if we compare the tourist turnover in Austria and Hungary and in Vienna and Budapest, we come to the conclusion that Budapest plays a much more important role in Hungary’s tourist turnover (38 %) than Vienna in that of Austria (16 %). See Figure 2, where the overnight stays are compared and shown in NUTS 2 regions in 2013. Though the dimensions of the two countries turnover differ, because Austria is a major global tourist destination, what is interesting is the above mentioned difference in ratio between Vienna and Budapest.

1 In absolute numbers Vienna (together with the visitors in Lower Austria and Burgenland) had 27 million overnight stays in 2013, while in Budapest it is only 9 million. But in
Figure 1 Two capital cities of similar situation and facilities of metropolitan tourism, and similarly evenly distributed tourist attraction all over their two countries: high mountain landscape and hot mineral water resources respectively. The two cities shared common history in the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy up to the end of World War 1.

Figure 2 Comparison of the ratios of Austrian and Hungarian tourist turnover projected for NUTS 2 regions. Data source: STADAT and Statistik Austria

percentage, compared to the data of the rest of the country, Budapest seems to be much more important in Hungary, than Vienna in Austria. What can explain this?
To see the reason for the difference we have to know the past. When urbanisation began to develop in earnest in Central Europe, after the Napoleon wars, the centre of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy used to be Vienna. According the well-known Christaller’s theory, urban networks develop in a hexagonal system covering the globe (Christaller 1933). The six directions radiated from Vienna to Prague, Brno, Budapest, Zagreb, Trieste, and Salzburg. These sub-centres had urban network radiating from them, like e.g. from Prague to (1) Liberec, (2) Hradec Králové, (3) Olomouc, (4) Brno, (5) České Budějovice, (6) Plzeň. When this urbanisation process was forcefully stopped by the new political borders, new states were formed in the Central European region. From among the three most important urban hubs (Vienna, Prague and Budapest) Vienna found herself in the most disadvantageous situation, unable to act in the centre of an urban hexagon. Prague became the luckiest, situated right in the middle of the theoretical Czech urban hexagon. Though Hungary suffered the greatest loss after the unjust treaty ending the war, the Hungarian urban hexagon around Budapest did survive. See Figure 3.

![Urban hexagonal networks in Central Europe showing the relatively better positions of Prague and Budapest compared to that of Vienna. This can explain the difference in tourist turnover of Vienna and Budapest as reflected in their less or more dominant role played in domestic tourism. Source: own construction.](image)

2 These hexagonal structures are of course are distorted by political borders, topography, rivers, motorways.

3 Vienna, being the easternmost hub of the imperfect Austrian urban hexagon without a centre, could profit for over 40 years of the cold war as the eastern gateway of the West towards the communist East.

4 Five of the centres around Budapest (Miskolc, Debrecen, Szeged, Pécs, Győr) were placed on the periphery of the (new) country, having lost their gravity zones, thus they were almost paralyzed from economic point of view.
The inner regional structure of Hungarian Tourism

The data basis used for trying to picture the regional structure of Hungarian tourism is composed of the overnight stays in the 3rd quarter year of 2014 published by the Central Statistical Office (KSH) of Hungary. The first ten destinations were chosen, however, since a great many tourist go to Budapest, the first ten Budapest destinations (districts) and the first ten countryside destinations were chosen.

Regional structure of tourism within Budapest

The destinations of overnight stays concentrate in the inner districts of Budapest solely. Ten of the 23 districts of the capital city were considered. The vast majority 1.5 million stays can be found in the City itself (District 5) on the Pest side. 8 and 6 hundred thousand stays are also located on the Pest side (Districts 6 and 8), then 5 hundred thousand on the hilly Buda side (District 1). Two other Buda districts can be mentioned: the 11th and 2nd the rest are Pest districts. Table 1 shows the number of overnight stays from 1500 to 200 hundred thousand in the ten Budapest districts. The vast majority of the stays were paid by foreign tourist (96 – 73 %) and only a little fraction by domestic tourists (27 – 4 %) which is easy to explain with the one day visits and/or unofficial accommodation with relatives and friends.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>District</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Stays</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Bp (District 5) The City</td>
<td>Foreign 96</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Bp (District 7) Elisabethstadt</td>
<td>Foreign 96</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Bp (District 6) Theresienstadt</td>
<td>Foreign 93</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Bp (District 8) Josephstadt</td>
<td>Foreign 93</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Bp (District 1) The Castle</td>
<td>Foreign 95</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Bp (District 13) Angyalföld</td>
<td>Foreign 83</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Bp (District 11) Kelenföld</td>
<td>Foreign 73</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Bp (District 9) Franczstadt</td>
<td>Foreign 90</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Bp (District 2) Buda Hills</td>
<td>Foreign 80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Bp (District 14) Zugló</td>
<td>Foreign 74</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 The Budapest districts with the first ten highest number of overnight stays (shown in black line), and the ratio of foreign and domestic tourists. The numbers in the front show their rankings in the first 20 Hungarian destinations calculated together with the 10 largest Hungarian countryside destinations.
Picture 1 Shows that the regional structure of the Budapest tourism is strictly concentrated to the innermost part of the city dominantly on the Pest side where the most well-known and frequented hotels can be found.

![Map of Budapest showing tourist destinations](map.jpg)

*Picture 1 Shows the locations of the inner parts of those 10 districts of Budapest that hold most of the overnight stays among the 20 first Hungarian destinations. The numbers thus denote the rankings of the districts both among the ten Budapest districts and the ten country destinations. Source: LANDSAT satellite map of Budapest.*

**Regional structure of tourism in the Hungarian countryside**

The destinations of overnight stays are scattered all through the country, since the major attraction is mineral water that is to be found anywhere. Other values like gastronomy, wine, cultural events, museums etc. are also evenly distributed in the Hungarian urban network. Table 2 shows the first ten Hungarian towns that attract most of the overnight stays. Hévíz, the well-known spa, is the first with 8 hundred thousand stays which ranks it 3rd if compared to the Budapest district data. The 10th is Gyula, another well-known spa with 3 hundred thousand stays which ranks the town 18th if considered together with the Budapest districts. In the countryside the rate of domestic tourists are much more important than in Budapest: they vary from 30 to 89 %.

In the map of Picture 2 we can define two regions: the west Transdanubian one and the Balaton one. The rest of the towns as represented by Hajdúszoboszló, Eger and Gyula are isolated or show no special concentration. So the relatively very well developed infrastructure of the region close to Austria (West Transdanubia) is one region where tourism can be concentrated. Another such region is the Lake Balaton and its vicinity. By far the largest concentration is
Budapest, but only the very centre of the metropolis. The rest of the countryside share rather modest numbers of overnight stays, with no special concentrations to outline regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Town</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Sárvár</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Zalakaros</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Sopron</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Eger</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Gyula</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Balatonfüred</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Bük</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Siófok</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Hajdúszoboszló</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Hévíz</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 The towns with the first ten highest number of overnight stays (shown in black line) in the Hungarian countryside and the ration of foreign and domestic tourists. The numbers in the front show their rankings in the first 20 Hungarian destinations calculated together with the first ten highest Budapest district destinations.

Picture 2 shows the locations of those 10 towns in the Hungarian countryside that hold most of the overnight stays among the 20 first Hungarian (Budapest and countryside) destinations. The numbers thus denote the rankings of the towns both among the ten Budapest districts and the ten country destinations. Source: the map of motorway availability of Hungarian settlements in the Hungarian National Economic Atlas issued by the Ministry of Economics in 2012.
Regional types of tourism in Hungary

As shown in Figure 4 we can come to a conclusion that from regional distribution point of view some significant part (40 %) is metropolitan type of tourism, located in the very heart of Budapest, and some 60 % of the Hungarian tourism belong to spa, wellness, cultural entertainment etc. type in the Hungarian countryside. The metropolitan type can be characterized with entertainment, cultural and spa attractions and the majority of the overnight stays (90 %) are paid by foreigners. In the countryside three basic regional types can be recognized: the West Transdanubian one, where the ratio of the domestic and foreign overnight stays is fifty-fifty and the major factor of attraction is the spa service. Another type can be defined by the vicinity of the Lake Balaton. Here some 60 % of the overnight stays are paid by domestic tourists and the major factors of attractions are spa services and entertainment. The rest of the countryside are represented by individual destinations to be found anywhere with a more significant (75 %) rate of domestic overnight stays. The main attracting factors include spa services and cultural destinations.

Figure 4 Regional types of tourism can be grouped into two major types: Budapest and the countryside. In the countryside West Transdanubia and the Lake Balaton seem to form regions, the rest are individual destinations. All types can be characterized by the rates between domestic and foreign overnight stays. Source: own construction.

An important thing to notice is that motorway accessibility does not influence the turnover of overnight stays! Among the first 20 destinations (out of which 10 are located in Budapest) the 3\textsuperscript{rd} (Hévíz), the 8\textsuperscript{th} (Bük), the 9\textsuperscript{th} (Balatonfüred), the 12\textsuperscript{th} (Sárvár), the 16\textsuperscript{th} (Sopron) and the 18\textsuperscript{th} (Gyula) are off the easy/short
motorway access routes. It directs attention to the importance of tourist marketing activity.

Sources

Overnight stays in the 3rd quarter year of 2014 published by the Central Statistical Office (KSH) of Hungary.
Overnight stays in Hungary in 2013 Published by STADAT
Overnight stays in Austria in 2013 Published by Statistik Austria
LANDSAT false colour image
Resilience studies have been spreading to complex issues in social science and as a branch of it, urban resilience brought room to discuss newly appearing urban phenomena. While debating social and cultural resilience, the 25 years’ anniversary of German reunification is a good opportunity to look into how the regions have been dealing to maintain the local heritage. Open competition in market economy has caused a decrease of industrial producers in Eastern Germany and it led shrinking job opportunities and population in this region. Meanwhile, tourism destination management in the cities with well-preserved old towns has been focusing on their classical charms which serve the regional and national identity. Over two decades of social, political and economic changes have transformed the course of destination development and peoples’ lives. This paper seeks to identify, analyze and evaluate the role of tourism as a tool of urban resilience in Eastern Germany. Its value is not only restricted in Eastern Germany but multi identity/cultural societies over the borders can benefit from this discussion. A case study approach will be focused on the ascending cultural destinations in the state of Thuringia. Keywords: Urban resilience, Cultural resilience, Cultural tourism, Heritage, Urban identity, GDR (German Democratic Republic)

Introduction

The great boom of resilience in academia departed from natural science and it spread to spatial research treating disaster or shock recovery such as climate change and tsunamis. Approaching urban and regional resilience has been attempted by a number of definitions in various fields and mostly the discussion involved the distinction from other formerly existing concepts such as sustainability, stability and persistence.

Towards an urban concept of resilience definition, it is no longer limited to hazardous disaster management but it deals with broader concept of resilient socio-cultural characters which support the city or region to be in both externally and internally invulnerable. In this paper, I focus on the aspects of internal potential and also psychological state of urban identity. As empirical case region, the state of Thuringia in Germany is chosen. As a representative cultural state in Germany, this region is stirring its strategies towards cultural tourism to fight against the urban shrinkage. The research question in this paper is: Can the tourism development in this region be an example of urban...
resilience? To answer this question, at first I look at the different understandings of urban resilience, secondly explore the linkage between urban resilience and tourism development, and finally identify the possibility through which tourism industry can contribute on urban resilience in this region. For local data of the case region, different sources of statistics are reviewed and tourism insights and organizational information is mainly from the expert interviews with the tourism institutions in the cities.

**Resilience**

Müller wrote “a high degree of resilience is related to a low degree of vulnerability (Müller 2011, p. 1).” He argues that contemporary uncertainty and insecurity have caused the big popularity of resilience. Holling differentiates resilience from stability, stability is “which represents the ability of a system to return to an equilibrium state after a temporary disturbance”, and ‘resilience, that is a measure of the persistence of systems and of their ability to absorb change and disturbance and still maintain the same relationships between populations or state variables’ (Holling 1973, p.15). Under the unclear changes in present society, minimising the risk of disturbance and increasing the strength in order to maintain the characteristics of the community seems to be the key factor in these two definitions. In the same sense, the leading institution of resilience studies in Europe, the Stockholm resilience center, defines resilience as simple as “the capacity to deal with change and continue to develop.”¹

Among the different definitions, commonly agreed factors, which make resilience different from formerly existing concepts, are absorbing change and is, thus, a flexible concept. It is an interactive and self-leading characteristic and it links the community organism in terms of urban concept. As a case of community based resilience, the African Biodiversity Network (ABN) can be addressed. The ABN is rooted in 12 African countries and it is conceived to fight against the threats to biodiversity and community livelihood in Africa. By informing the threats and sharing local knowledge/solutions, it protects Africa’s heritage.² The SRC funds the network and it shares the ideal how SRC defines resilience in a regional concept. The ABN focuses on indigenous knowledge, agricultural and biodiversity related rights and legislation. Cultural assents and local knowledge are therefore an important asset while talking about urban resilience. By the nature of the industry, tourism shares this point by involving the local communities as the producer. Well managed tourist destinations absorb disturbances and still retain its basic function and structure, or, the ability of a community to flow with changes in conditions and prosper. Rahmawati states,

¹ Stockholm Resilience Centre: http://www.stockholmresilience.org, definitions by 22.01.2015
² See more on http://www.stockholmresilience.org
the understanding of tourism as part of city’s resilience has been focused to a place-centered network that will expand its practice of resilience to include tourism communities (Rahmawati et al 2014, p. 143).

Resilience studies are more appreciated due to the shortage of other existing terminologies to explain various urban states today. As one of the cases, to describe vitality of a city, it is not all explainable by ‘livability’ especially to assess how resilient the city is in terms of continuing the characteristics. Likewise, the decline of small size cities and shrinking population in rural areas is a crucial topic and including the increase of elder community, topics regarding vivid and upward societies are a big part of urban studies. Combining these common criteria, the case of tourism development in Eastern German cities is a good example to exercise the conception.

Defining tourism industry in a city has been classically focused on the economic aspect of the city; how much income of the city is being created by tourism industry; how many occupations it creates and how much gastronomy, hotel and souvenirs are sold. Recently, there has been a new aspect about judging the situation in the recent tourism industry, the question if the number of tourists in the city is still bearable for the inhabitants. If the community is content with the tourism situation, for instance, the life quality and livability of the city, has become crucial in the last decade. The case of Barcelona is a well-known example of the emerge of unhappy residents but also many other tourist cities such as Prague, Wien, Berlin, Rome, etc., are now concerned to maintain themselves as, so called ‘happy’ tourist city. The classical tourists orientated tourism marketing has resulted irritated society and unhappy residents. Hence, tourism is not only about the tourists but also the society where the physical ground of the industry and whether they are happy or not becomes a crucial issue in the present and the coming century. Happy residents is in fact one of the issues of emerging, multi-dimensional and sensitive issues. It shows a sign of unpredictable urban development and that is perhaps a reason why ‘urban resilience’ appears as attractive.

The dependency on climate change and disaster management in resilience studies might be also because of the shortage of empirical case studies on urban level. Existing urban studies including urban resilience analysis are focused on large cities and large cities involve an exceptional degree of complexity due to its dynamic interrelationships in social, economic, cultural and political factors (Eckardt 2009). Deppisch and Porsche raised the question of the applicability of resilience in large cities due to its high level of complexity (Deppisch and Porsche 2011). Their case cities Hamburg and Istanbul and definitely many mega cities in Europe must fail to satisfy quantitative standards to measure the capability of resilience Therefore, it gets more important to look at smaller size cities to prevent the danger of fading attention.
Small cities in Eastern Germany

Eastern Germany suits well the three criteria that can lead to explain urban resilience. The cities in the former GDR territory have been through drastic changes in overall dimensions in the last 25 years. Urban transformation and socio-economic changes are one of a kind and it cannot be compared with any other examples of politic changes. The German reunification was on one hand a onetime event, however, the absolute change from the governing system up to urban landscape is a long process which is happening until now. This large amount of time and the volume of changes cannot be easily answered neither in the scope of shock recoveries nor by urban restructuring. Secondly it involves inner competence. Lang describes resilience as more than coping with critical events; it is “something underneath (Murphy 1974 quoted in Lang 2011, p.16).’ Similarly, Folke defines resilience: the self-organization capacity of a social system (Folke 2006). After the reunification, the changes came from every dimension of the society. Apart from the financial funds from the federal governments and NGOs, social, cultural, economic, and political changes were up to the communities and each of the citizens. The result of the adaptation is inherent in the society. Thirdly, it is a multi-dimensional and long lasting capacity of the organism. The region can be seen as an organism or an overall systemic ability, which performs a massive transformation.

Tourism in the Eastern states: The case of Thuringia

State of Thuringia is located in the center of Germany, as it promotes itself as the heart of Germany. Possessing Turingian forest (Thüringer Wald in German) which crosses the northwest to southeast, it used to be one of the popular holiday destinations during the GDR period. The capital city, Erfurt, has c.a. two hundred thousand (205,112) inhabitants. Other major cities are Jena (107,679), Gera (94,997), and Weimar (63,315). After these cities, there are 17 small size cities between 19,000 to 44,371 habitants. The sum population of the state has been steadily decreasing since 1990. The regional office of statistic predicts the population decline will continue in the coming years so by 2020, 200,000 reduced from now and in the year of 2030, it is foreseen to be 2,800,000 in the whole state. Shrinking population is the general problem that almost all former GDR states are suffering from. Declining industry has caused a drop of the employment rate and it leads the younger generation to move towards the West. According to the statistic (Table 1), despite the growing population of Germany,
most of the former GDR states show the population decline since the national reunification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region/State</th>
<th>1990 (in thousand)</th>
<th>2011 (in thousand)</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baden-Württemberg</td>
<td>9.822</td>
<td>10.786</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bayern</td>
<td>11.449</td>
<td>12.590</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>3.434</td>
<td>3.502</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brandenburg</td>
<td>2.578</td>
<td>2.496</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bremen</td>
<td>682</td>
<td>661</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamburg</td>
<td>1.652</td>
<td>1.799</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hessen</td>
<td>5.763</td>
<td>6.092</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mecklenburg-Vorpommern</td>
<td>1.924</td>
<td>1.635</td>
<td>-15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niedersachsen</td>
<td>7.387</td>
<td>7.914</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nordrhein-Westfalen</td>
<td>17.350</td>
<td>17.842</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rheinland-Pfalz</td>
<td>3.764</td>
<td>3.999</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saarland</td>
<td>1.073</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>-5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sachsen</td>
<td>4.764</td>
<td>4.137</td>
<td>-13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sachsen-Anhalt</td>
<td>2.874</td>
<td>2.313</td>
<td>-19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schleswig-Holstein</td>
<td>2.626</td>
<td>2.838</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thüringen</td>
<td>2.611</td>
<td>2.221</td>
<td>-14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neue Länder ohne Berlin</td>
<td>14.752</td>
<td>12.802</td>
<td>-13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neue Länder mit Berlin</td>
<td>18.186</td>
<td>16.304</td>
<td>-10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alte Länder</td>
<td>61.517</td>
<td>65.540</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deutschland</td>
<td>79.753</td>
<td>81.844</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 -- Population change in comparison with other states 1990-2011

As the result of the system transformation, former important industrial districts lost its competence against open market economy and the cities which used to be former administrative centers also became ordinary smaller cities.

**Towards a tourist city: Gotha**

Gotha is one of the small towns situated in the middle of Thuringia. During the GDR, it was one of the industry oriented cities in the region and it was known for a publishing factory, heavy metal industry, and train/airplane construction. After the reunification, the publishing factory and train/airplane industry closed as well as some of the heavy metal factories. Based on the political and administrative issues and also by the practical reasons, the top-down decisions were made to disband the factories and it was processed quickly. It still has the heavy metal industry which supports regional economy, however, Gotha is not any longer the representative construction and metal industry city nationwide. In

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5 ‘Thüringen’: The state of Thuringia and ‘neue Länder ohne Berlin’: the average population change in the former GDR states except Berlin  
6 Source: Demografiebericht 2013, p11
the vacant of shrunken industry, tourism development has appeared. As the third biggest income source at the moment, it has been growing in the last 10 years. With the exclusive support of the mayor, the tourism marketing agency ‘Kultourstadt Gotha’ has been setting up the new marketing strategies and they foresee the optimistic future of Gotha’s tourism industry. While raising the attention on tourism industry, there are hopes and limitations which can be generally seen in other regions in the former GDR states. The great potentials are not designed to be shown. In the case of Gotha, today’s marketing focus has been only decided in two years ago. The logo, ‘Gotha Adelt’ is active since 5 years but at the same time the former city motto ‘Imperial residence-city’ (in German Residenzstadt) is still used at various occasions. It reveals that tourism management was not in consideration in strategic city development for a long time. For example, Gotha Adelt symbolizes Gotha’s nobility image which refers to the Baroque castle (Friedenstein Castle) in the city, the Philharmonic orchestra and royal family which is originally originated from Gotha and spread to all over Europe. The most active tourism marketing is therefore, to relate the European royal families with Gotha and organize events such inviting European noble families and making sisterhood with the cities where former Gotha’s royal families have migrated to. In this way, national attention and global awareness are expected to grow. However, to stand out all by itself, Gotha does not have enough relevant marketing methods and competence. The neighbour cities Weimar, Erfurt and Eisenach are doing all different marketing under the category of cultural tourism. It is a competition among each small independent local administration. For the state tourism marketing of Thuringia, only bigger destinations and focusing themes of the year are promoted, and Gotha is not relevant in the planning.

Luther City, Eisenach

Eisenach is located on the former border line of the BDR and the GDR and at the same time it is the West edge of Thuringia. Eisenach has been always an important city for German history due to the story of Luther, Bach and the castle of Wartburg. Once in its history, the city was also important for car production because one of the two car models during the GDR was produced in Eisenach. The car was even named after the castle, Wartburg. The car factory of Wartburg closed down in 1991, and the history of car city continues partly by manufacture buildings of Opel. However, the city is not anymore car manufacturing orientated instead, in that gap of economic and cultural locality, tourism has been routed in the last years. From a car city to Luther city, the motto has been also changed. Luther and Bach were born in Eisenach and spent their youth time

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7 About 17,000 growth on visitor numbers in 2014 compared to 2006, Inside report of 'Kultourstadt Gotha', reviewed during the expert interview
in this city. Luther translated the first version of the bible in German language in a room in Wartburg and on that the tourism marketing is very much focused. Luther’s house where he spent his school days has been in a complete reconstruction in the last two years and the re-opening is scheduled in the coming September in 2015. Meanwhile a bigger project of the state of Thuringia celebrating 500 years’ anniversary of Luther’s reformation is planned in 2017.

**Graph 1 - The development of average age in Thuringia 1990-2012**

**Map 1 - Population trends in the districts of Thuringia 1990-2012**

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8 Source: Demografiebericht 2013, p14
9 Source: Demografiebericht 2013, p18
In contrast to the GDR times, when the concept of city marketing did not exist at all, the desire of city tourism and urban marketing is most requested in this region. Thanks to the fact that the small cities have relatively well preserved old towns and historic gems, there is a hope and a possibility of storytelling to bring up the city once again to a lively destination. Otherwise, a spectacular change or investment on industry is not relevant for present situation and a huge transformation is budget wise not applicable. The Thuringian forest as winter sport destination or a well-being tour package has been fading out since the border opened. In old times, by the domestic holiday tourists, Thuringian forest was the second beloved destination in the GDR (Freyer 2000, p.232). With the open competition with other destinations in Germany as well as neighbour countries like Austria, Switzerland and Italy, activity tourism in Thuringia has lost its competence in the market.

The tourism development in the former GDR states is most of all highly appreciated as a driving factor of local economy. According to the ministry of Thuringia, tourism industry in Thuringia has increased in sum 31.8% in 2000 to 2008 and until last year (2014) it has shown a steady growth every year (Wirtschaftsfaktor Tourismus in Thüringen Endbericht 2009). The ministry of economy is supporting by developing active strategies and in 2014, around 3,900,000 Euros was invested for tourism development (Freistaat Thüringen 2015). Responding to this effort, statistics show clear positive development in new destination development such as Schmalkalden (+23% growth compared to 2013), Saalfeld (+10%) and Eisenach and Gera (each +8%) by the 2014 tourism report (Freiestaat Thüringen 2015). Tourism strategy in Thuringia has major focus on cultural tourism. Increasing the awareness of its historic charm is in general in the first position for domestic and international tourists. Great architectural heritage, regional history and important personalities are the basic components and promoting events such as medieval festivals, local food market and classic music events are the extra attractions.

Developing cultural tourism involves besides economic benefits also development of locality and conceptualization. As the marketing motto says: “Thuringia as a memory culture destination (in German: KulturPerlen Thüringen, Errinerungskultur als leuchtturm von heraus gender touristischer Bedeutung), Thuringia is shouting out its identity and local culture. Thuringian regional travel agency sticks to its focus, on cultural tourism, since 2000. According to a statistic from the ministry of Thuringia, in 2012, 35% of private tourists in Thuringia are cultural tourists. This is a significant number as the German average cultural tourist is 25% (Freistaat Thüringen 2012).

Cultural tourism in the former GDR states carries also more fundamental messages regarding the memory and identity management. As Graham (2008) argues memorial icons of identity such as monuments, memorials and buildings
carry conscious and subconscious meanings and competing interests of the society (Graham, Howard 2008, p. 43). While promoting the nationally great personalities and glorious part of the history, it requires a sense of collective awareness and common historical experience. Memory gets fastened and selected during the process of heritage management; therefore, the tourism industry in this region is contributing in building locality and the communal resilience. Jason wrote in his book about Eastern Germany’s heritage management after the reunification, “national leaders framed unification as the recovery of the nation, and cultural monuments offered palpable, seemingly uncontroversial symbols of the restoration, thereby giving long-established practices of historic preservation new meaning.’ (Jason 2001, p. 22). As spoken earlier, many interconnections among various fields such as sociocultural, political, economic, historical and ecological developments are relevant to achieve local resilience.

**Conclusion**

The concept of resilience opens up a gate for social science to discuss various forms of urban issues. By using the term ‘resilience’ we can explain certain debates which cannot be fully argued by existing theories. It still needs clear boundaries to have more constructive debates. In order to do so, more empirical studies need to prove the term in an adaptive level. In this paper, I attempted to link the conceptual term to apply in the situation of Eastern German cities. It underlines if tourism development in this region can apply for the concept of urban resilience and also how it makes the city more resilient. The core linkage to connect the term and the territory is ‘cultural resilience’. The case cities are especially chosen to represent the story of small size cities in the former GDR area where urban shrinkage is being a serious concern. The huge change after the reunification is here regarded as an event which brought physical but also socio-economic and even psychological changes to the residents and the whichever perceptions were rarely defined in urban conceptualizations involving other terms. By applying the concept of resilience, we can look at the urban as a multi-dimensional organism and that enables the research to expand various edges of the case and its durability.

The example of Gotha shows a former industrial city where the industry has shrunken and inhabitants have moved away. Meanwhile, the local government is accelerating the tourism theme and promotion development with full support. Similarly, Eisenach is a former automobile city where the former GDR car model production is taken away. Since then tourism development is more focused on historic value of the city and tourist destination development encouraged reconstructing important architectures of the city.

The lost vividness, aging society and domestic migrations to the West are the common features in a number of cities in Eastern Germany. Tourism is perhaps
not the only way of urban resilience in this region. Nevertheless, tourism development in Thuringia covers different facets of the development of region in order to bring it onto commonly agreed ideals such as more population (including passersby) in the city, cultural events, transportation and reconstruction of architectural heritage. By the growth of job operators, investments by the regional government, increasing number of visitors and the phenomenon of becoming a tourist city, tourism can support the regeneration in local economy. Besides, tourism development can contribute to the solution of social issues, promote the local classics, revive the pride and sense of the local history and has, thereby, many positive psychological effects. Therefore, tourism in Eastern Germany is relevant to make the city more resilient and it should develop further in this respect.

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Tourism product development and marketing of Sofia metropolitan area: business perceptions and priorities

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Introduction

Sofia is the capital and the largest city of the Republic of Bulgaria, with a population of 1 million people and some 1.3 million in the metropolitan area that covers 1 349 km² including also three smaller towns and 34 villages.

Founded seven thousand years ago, Sofia is among the oldest cities in Europe and the remnants of its rich past that can be seen today alongside modern landmarks hold the considerable potential of heritage tourism development. A

Bankya, Novi Iskar and Buhovo have the status of separate towns within Sofia Municipality
large number of public institutions and business companies are located there, thus attracting a lot of business visitors. As a big city, Sofia also has the opportunity of developing other typically urban types of tourism such as event, entertainment, sport, shopping tourism, etc.

Wider Sofia metropolitan area has even more to offer as the city is surrounded by a number of mountains including the Vitosha Nature Park (2 290 m) which is less than 10 km away from the city center, suggesting well-preserved biodiversity and year-round outdoor activities. The adjacent valleys are featured by 31 mineral water deposits of different chemical composition and temperature ranging from 20°C to 81°C (Penchev and Velichkov, 2011). There are thermal water springs in the very city center while the nearby town of Bankya (17 km away from Sofia) is officially declared a spa resort of national importance.

Noteworthy cultural, historical and religious sites are to be found in Sofia suburban areas such as the UNESCO enlisted Boyana Church with its unique frescoes dating back to the 12th century, the 14th-century Dragalevtzi Monastery, and the National History Museum that is housed by the former State Council Residence in the outskirts of Vitosha Mountain. Furthermore, the capital city is surrounded by a belt of monasteries known as the Sofia Holy Mount. The monasteries have originated at different times (from the 4th to the 20th century) and are currently in different state – from completely destroyed to fully functioning. Not all of them could become tourist attractions but 17 monasteries have been recently assessed as potential tourist sites (Sofia Holy Mount, 2013).

Evidently, Sofia Metropolitan Area has at disposal a considerable potential for development of a wide range of tourism products – either ‘urban’ and ‘non-urban’ types of tourism. However, the existing potential is largely unemployed and so far Sofia has not been widely recognized as a highly attractive tourist destination. According to the municipal statistics (Sofia tourism in figures, 2013) the volume of accommodation supply accounts for 420 registered establishments with a total number of 10 203 rooms and 17 963 bed places. The 33 000 employees in the accommodation and the food-and-beverage sectors comprise about 5% of the whole employment in the capital city. The volume of tourism demand is represented by nearly 900 000 overnight visitors (including more than 500 thousand foreigners), nearly 1.6 million nights spent (about 1 million by foreigners) and revenue from accommodation of nearly 100 million BGN (about 50 million EUR). Although with a relatively small accommodation capacity, Sofia ranges in Bulgarian top 5 municipalities by the number of arrivals and nights spent as well as by foreign overnight visitors and revenue from accommodation (NSI, 2013). However, some indicators reveal rather unfavorable situation in terms of facilities utilization - relatively low room occupancy rate (40%), much lower bed occupancy rate (24%) and very short average duration of tourist stay (1.8 overnights per person).
Problems of Sofia tourism development have been a subject of public and academic debate for years (Marinov, 1991; Popova, 2002 a,b, 2003; Matczak and Bachvarov, 2004; Marinov et al., 2012 a; Dogramadjieva, 2011 b; Dogramadjieva and Marinov, 2013 a,b). Part of the necessary solutions (such as improving the service quality, diversifying the individual products offered and more precise market positioning) is a pure business responsibility. Another, very important part of the decisions is in the hands of local authorities that are in charge of creating favorable business environment and implementing tourism management and marketing at destination level.

Yet, the decisions at destination level have always been a tricky question requiring effective communication with different stakeholders in order to balance contradictory interests, and recognize common needs and priorities. This is especially valid for the development of the local tourism product and its promotion. Acting as a Destination Management Organization, the Tourism Municipal Enterprise has marketing as a dominant function. Its main role as summarized by the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2007) is to coordinate the elements within the destination and lead the efforts of stakeholders for its promotion and the provision of services, so that they meet or exceed the expectations of tourists.

Led by the understanding that tourism policy-making should wisely consider business perceptions and expectations, the Tourism Municipal Enterprise of Sofia has initiated a number of questionnaire-based surveys that have been conducted by academics from Sofia University since 20112. Grounded by the need for a better informed and objective-driven tourism policy, these surveys have not only filled significant gaps in tourism statistics but also completed the ‘hard’ data with ‘soft’ information regarding the business view point on important tourism policy issues. Thus, they have served as a communication channel between the business and the public authorities, providing an opportunity for the business to influence the local government decisions.

This paper is focused on some results of the survey conducted in 2013 that was targeted at two groups of respondents - the accommodation and the intermediary tourism sectors. The first group included 173 accommodation establishments with over 8500 beds presenting 46% of all categorized entities and 51% of the available bed places in Sofia municipality. A return rate of 89% was achieved and the whole variety of accommodation units by type, category, capacity and location was covered by the sample. The second group included 35 travel agencies.

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2 The first study (Dogramadjieva, 2011a) covered four target groups: 1) the accommodation sector, 2) Sofia-based tour operators, 3) cultural institutions and 4) religious sites. The second study (Marinov et al., 2012b) was focused on the accommodation sector only. The third study (Marinov et al., 2013) covered two target groups: 1) the accommodation sector and 2) nation-wide tour operators and travel agencies.
agencies, comprising both tour operators and travel agents from all over the country. The return rate was lower (42%) but the respondents exemplified well-established companies with a considerable market share and a wide range of products offered. In the both target groups mostly owners or general executives answered the questions, and rarely – managers at lower level. Thus, high reliability of the study results has been ensured.

The questionnaires consisted of both close-ended and open-ended questions covering a wide range of topics – expectations and assessments regarding the overall business climate and own business development; general vision of destination marketing and joint activities; evaluation of particular tourism-related initiatives of the local authority such as the Tourist Information Center or the newly established Sofia tourist web site (www.visitsofia.bg).

The current analysis deals with just a small part of the results that are relevant to the scope of the paper. It reveals the destination product development and marketing priorities for Sofia Metropolitan Area as seen by the studied business representatives. The respondents’ assessments of different tourism products potential and current state are discussed as well as the main types of tourism to be promoted. Public support to tourism product development and marketing at destination level is also highlighted, including priority marketing activities and financial resources allocation as viewed by the two groups of respondents. Finally, their readiness for undertaking joint activities with local authorities is discussed – either in terms of general interest expressed and willingness to co-fund particular joint activities.

The methodology of assessing the priorities involves direct questioning (e.g. which are the priority markets, the priority activities, etc.) completed with analysis of derivative results of several questions (e.g. the gaps derived by comparing the assessments of a given product’s potential and current state). Results are revealed by different indicators – either means or frequency rates.

Based on the comparative analysis of the opinions expressed by the two studied groups of respondents, conclusions and recommendations are drawn regarding Sofia local authorities future activities in the field of destination product development and marketing.

**Priority tourism products at destination level**

**Tourism products potential and current state assessment**

All major types of tourism in Sofia Municipality have been assessed as having considerable development potential with no significant differences in the scores given by the two groups of respondents (Fig. 1). Yet, the existing distinctions make it possible to classify the types of tourism (products) in three groups depending on the average scores assigned on a 5-grade scale:
1) Products of highest potential (mean scores about and above 4.0): heritage, event and business tourism. Entertainment tourism could be added in this group as well, although it has been lower assessed by the travel agencies;
2) Products of significant potential (mean scores above 3.5): ski tourism and other nature-based types of tourism;
3) Products of limited potential (mean scores between 2.9 and 3.4): spa & wellness tourism together with religious and pilgrimage tourism.

Generally, the accommodation sector representatives have scored higher than the travel agencies the development potential of event, business, spa & wellness, and entertainment tourism. On the other hand, the touroperators have given relatively higher preference to future development potential of heritage tourism (+0.2) and especially of religious / pilgrimage tourism (+0.5).

Commonly, travel agencies have been more critical compared to the accommodation sector representatives. They have scored considerably lower most of the existing products - event, business, entertainment, spa & wellness tourism. However, based on both target groups assessments two sets of tourism products depending on their present state of development could be clearly outlined:
1) Higher assessed products (mean scores around 3.0) include event, business, entertainment and heritage tourism.
2) Lower assessed products (mean scores around 2.0) include “green”, pilgrimage, spa & wellness and heritage tourism.

![Fig. 1 Tourism products development potential assessment on a 5-grade scale](image-url)
The current state of all tourism products offered in Sofia Municipality has been evaluated significantly lower that their development potential (Fig. 2).

Significant gaps between the development potential and the current state of all types of tourism in Sofia Municipality have been derived from both the accommodation and the intermediary sector responses. The gap values of separate products vary between 0.8 and 1.7 and the ranking based on the both groups’ assessments is almost identical (Fig. 3). According to the study results the highest gaps (above 1.5) indicating largely unemployed potential refer to ski tourism, nature-based and heritage tourism. Lower but still significant gaps (above 1.0) concern spa & wellness tourism as well as pilgrimage, event and business tourism. Entertainment tourism is the only product that is featured by a relatively small gap value (0.8 – 0.9).

Considering the mean scores of tourism products potential and current state as well as the identified gaps, all types of tourism in Sofia Municipality could be classified in two groups (Fig. 4):

1) Products of higher assessed potential (around 4.0) and current state (around 3.0) include heritage, event, business and entertainment tourism. Those kinds of tourism are typically “urban’ as they are usually bound to the city and to the city center in particular. In most of the cases their gap values rate around 1.0. Heritage tourism appears the most problematic product in this group with a gap of 1.5, i.e. the highest unemployed potential.

2) Products of lower assessed potential (3.2 – 3.6) and current state (1.9 – 2.0) include ski, “green’, spa and pilgrimage tourism. Those “non-urban’ types of
tourism are mostly related to the city surroundings and are generally characterized by bigger gaps (1.2 – 1.7).

**Fig. 3** Identified gaps between the assessed development potential and current state of tourism products in Sofia Municipality

**Fig. 4** Overall assessments of Sofia tourism products based on their development potential and current state (the area of the circles indicates the gap rate)
Priority resources and products to be developed and promoted

Opinions of the both groups of respondents concerning the priority resources and products of Sofia to be developed and promoted are similar but not to the extent the estimations of the products current state and potential are (Fig. 5).

According to the summarised study results the priority resources and products to be developed and promoted could be classified as follows:

1) Absolute and shared priorities - selected by more than half of respondents in both groups: archaeological, historical and architectural landmarks in the city (63% of the accommodations and 88% of the travel agencies), cultural events (68% and 74%) and business events (50 and 68%).

2) High though disputable priorities - selected from over 50% of the respondents in one of the groups and at least 1/3 in the other: monasteries and churches outside Sofia (41% of the accommodations and 62% of the travel agencies), ski tourism (55% and 44%) and sport events (53% and 35%).

3) Resources and products of lower importance - selected by 1/3 or less of the respondents in both groups: entertainment and nightlife (35% of the accommodations and 29% of the travel agencies), spa & wellness tourism (28% and 29%), nature-based activities (30% and 18%), and shopping tourism (19% and 26%).

![Fig. 5 Priorities for development and promotion of Sofia as a tourist destination - share of respondents](image-url)
Public support priorities in tourism product development and marketing

Priority marketing activities

All the proposed in the questionnaire activities to promote Sofia and stimulate tourist consumption have been considered important and similarly scored by the accommodation and the intermediary tourism sector representatives (Fig. 6). It is revealed on Fig. 6 that variances affect lower scored activities, i.e. no significant differences between them regarding the main priorities have been identified.

Both groups of respondents have put a strong emphasis on marketing activities related to new information technologies: maintaining the tourism website (ranked first in both groups with scores of 4.5 given by the accommodation sector and 4.6 by the travel agencies) and active e-marketing including utilization of electronic media, social networks, search engines, thematic portals and platforms, etc. (ranged second by the accommodation sector with a score of 4.4 and third by the travel agencies with a score of 4.3).

Compared to travel agencies, the accommodation entities have scored quite higher the participation in tourism fairs and exhibitions abroad (4.3 vs. 4) and in the country (3.9 vs. 3.2) as well as outdoor advertising (3.6 against 3.0) and advertising on radio and TV (3.6 vs. 2.9). Travel agencies on the other hand, have stronger supported the provision of quality tourist information by the Cultural Information Centre of Sofia (4.5 vs. 4.2), initiating of a 3-day discount card for tourists (4.2 vs. 4.0), timely cultural calendar preparation (4.0 vs. 3.7) and conducting of promotional trips for tour operating companies (3.8 vs. 3.5) and journalists (3.6 vs. 3.4).

Based on the mean scores given by the two groups of respondents, priority activities could be classified in four groups:

1) Highest priority has been assigned to the maintenance of the official tourist website of Sofia - scored above 4.5, with a share of responses ‘very important’ about 75%.
2) Highly significant activities (graded 4.0 and above, with a share of responses ‘very important’ about 60%): active e-marketing and providing quality information to tourists in the Cultural Information Centre (CIC).
3) Important activities (scored about 4.0, with a share of answers ‘very important’ about 50% in at least one group of respondents): distribution of information and promotional materials through other information centers in the country and abroad; participation in tourism fairs and exhibitions abroad; publishing and distribution of information materials about Sofia tourist sites; introducing a 3-day tourist card; expanding the range of services provided by CIC-Sofia; opening new tourist information points; timely cultural calendar preparation and dissemination. The last activity is a borderline case: it is seen
as more important by the travel agencies (mean score 4.0; very important for 50% of the respondents) and less important by the accommodation sector (3.7; very important for 31% of the respondents).

4) Activities of moderate importance (scored below 4.0, with a share of answers ‘very important’ less than 40%): organization of promotional events, expedient and journalist tours; participation in tourism fairs and exhibitions within the country; preparation of accommodation catalogue; radio and TV advertising as well as outdoor and print media advertising.

Fig. 6 Estimated importances of the activities to promote Sofia and stimulate tourist consumption – mean scores on a 5-grade scale
It should be stressed that the overall high importance ratings reflect the complex nature of product development and integrated promotional activities. Furthermore, such high assessments suggest the need for searching synergy in implementing different activities (especially the e-based ones) to achieve multiplier effects.

**Marketing funds allocation: priority geographical markets**

According to the respondents from the two studied groups, absolute priority in allocation of financial resources for marketing of Sofia as a tourist destination should be given to foreign markets, among which EU member states (without the neighboring countries) should dominate (Fig. 7a). Distinct opinions concern the allocation of financial resources targeted at the EU member states and the domestic market. Representatives of the accommodation sector propose that the highest share of financial resources should be allocated to EU member states (28%), which is close to what is proposed for the second by importance Bulgarian market (24%). Conversely, travel agencies propose significantly higher share of financial resources to be allocated to EU member states (39%) while the proposed share for the domestic market that is ranked last in importance, is twice as lower (12%).

Fig. 7 Suggested allocation of financial resources for marketing of Sofia as a tourist destination and the contemporary structure of visitors by groups of countries

The generally low domestic market share in the suggested allocation of financial resources for marketing should be explained differently in regards to the two groups of respondents. For the representatives of the accommodation sector, domestic market is closer, easier to attract and with a higher proportion of
visitors with limited choice of destinations (e.g. business travellers, etc.). As for the travel agencies, the explanation is related to the fact that Bulgarians rarely use intermediary services when travelling within the country and therefore, are not viewed as a significant market segment.

Compared to the structure of contemporary tourist demand (Fig. 7b) the recommended allocation of financial resources makes it clear that both travel agencies and accommodation establishments are striving to attract more foreign customers. The accommodation sector, however, is willing to keep the existing proportions within the foreign market, while travel agencies are rather seeking a change – particularly, through increase in the relative weight of non-EU and non-Balkan European countries as well as of distant markets.

**Specialized infrastructure development funds allocation: priority activities**

Restoration and exposition of archeological, historical and cultural sites has shown to be an indisputable priority in terms of public financial support to specialized infrastructure development, with the highest share of spending proposed by the both groups of respondents (Fig. 8).

Next come three groups of activities with suggested 10-13% of the money to be spend on each of them: posting of information boards and signs; construction or restoration of spa facilities, swimming pools, etc.; development and better maintenance of parks, gardens and green areas. On the rest of activities it is recommended to spend 4-9% of the available public resources each.

![Fig. 8 Allocation of financial resources for specialized infrastructure development – proposed share of spending (average values)](image-url)
Generally, the study results indicate the consensus regarding the specialized infrastructure development funds allocation, especially in terms of ranking the activities by importance. In terms of specific percentages, the main difference is the significantly higher share of financial resources proposed by travel agencies to be allocated for restoration and exposition of tourist sites (27% vs. 19%).

**Attitudes to joint activities with local authorities**

The majority of respondents from the two studied groups have stated to be interested in joint activities with local authorities for development and marketing of Sofia as a tourist destination, though with different preferences to the type of activities (Fig. 9). Both sectors representatives are mostly interested in “soft” joint activities (dissemination of information, organization of events, etc.) that have been pointed by 53%-93% of the accommodation units and by 58%-81% of the travel agencies. However, the accommodation sector has also shown considerable interest in joint activities related to the development and maintenance of attractions and infrastructure (42%-67% of respondents), that expectedly have not been widely supported by the travel agencies (13%-20%).

![Fig. 9 Stated interest in joint activities with local authorities for development and marketing of Sofia as a tourist destination – share of respondents](image-url)

Much smaller part of the respondents in both groups, however, has expressed willingness to participate in co-funding of joint activities (Fig. 10). Only 22% of the studied accommodation establishments and 27% of the travel agencies have positively answered the question, against 31% and 18% negative answers in the corresponding groups. The high share of “do not know” responses (about 50% in
both groups) indicates the pragmatic approach of the business that expects clear parameters in order to give a definite answer.

**Fig. 10 Readiness for co-funding of joint activities with the local government – share of respondents**

Respondents who have expressed readiness to co-finance joint activities have agreed on the main ways of participation - not direct financial contributions but “barter” forms of funding the joint activities are strongly preferred (Fig. 11).

**Fig. 11 Supported forms of co-funding joint activities for development of Sofia as a tourist destination – share of respondents**

The most widely supported are bartering agreements such as hotel or other services in return for advertising (88% of accommodation units and 86% of travel agencies), followed by sponsorship of events through provision of free services (50% of travel agencies and 24% of accommodation units). About 1/3 of the responding travel agencies (but only 6% of the accommodation units) have shown readiness for direct financial contribution by co-funding events.
According to both groups of respondents payment of higher tourist tax is definitely not an appropriate form of financial support to activities concerning the development of Sofia as a tourist destination.

Conclusions

The success of individual businesses is highly dependent on the success of a tourist destination, which largely depends on the public authorities activities. Yet, the role of tourism business in destination management and marketing should not be underestimated - the success of the destination implies joint consideration of problems and decision-making as well as joint action.

The above presented questionnaire-based survey of the accommodation and the intermediary tourism sectors in Sofia municipality could be regarded as a form of consultation of public authorities with tourism business. Results reflect the collective opinion of the studied groups of respondents and give a number of ideas and guidelines for the development and marketing of Sofia as a tourist destination.

Generally, the comparative analysis has shown that opinions and perceptions expressed by the accommodation and intermediary sector representatives are rather similar than different. This is a good basis for the formulation and implementation of local tourism policy as well as the formation of consensus between the two important stakeholder groups on specific issues of local tourism development. Meanwhile, the existing differences between the two sectors as well as within each of them should not be underestimated, as they can be important for making specific decisions.

Based on the study results, the following recommendations concerning product development and marketing of Sofia Metropolitan Area could be summarized:

- So far, the most widely supported by the business priorities regarding product development and marketing are territorially bound to the city of Sofia rather than to the suburban areas.
- Not underestimating the diverse resource potential of Sofia Metropolitan Area, three types of tourism are assessed of both highest potential and highest level of current development: heritage, event and business tourism.
- The first priority resources and products to be developed and promoted include: archaeological, historical and architectural landmarks in the city, cultural events and business events. These are followed by the utilization of monasteries in the suburban area, development of ski tourism at Vitosha Mountain and organization of sport events.
- The highest priority marketing activities refer to better utilization of new information technologies, especially the maintenance of Sofia Web-site and active e-marketing. However, these should be completed by a wide range of measures that have also been assessed as very important.
✓ Priority markets to be attained through public financial support are rather foreign than domestic - especially the EU member states, followed by other European countries, Balkan countries and distant markets.
✓ Priority activities regarding tourism product and specialized infrastructure development to be supported by public funding include at first place restoration and exposition of archeological, architectural and historical sites, followed by information boards and signposting, spa facilities construction or restoration, and city green areas development and maintenance.
✓ All the activities regarding product development and marketing of Sofia as a tourist destination are complex and should be effectively combined and integrated in order synergy effects to be achieved.
✓ As far as readiness for joint activities with local authorities has been expressed by the business, it should be utilized by the administration, and particularly by the Tourism Municipal Enterprise. However, local authorities could rely mainly on simple and easily recognizable forms of financial collaboration such as joint venture contracts based on barter or sponsorship “in kind”. Direct funding of joint activities or indirect funding through higher tourism tax payments are definitely unacceptable for the business.

Finally, it should be stressed that the survey results as well as general and more specific recommendations given have to be farther considered in terms of both the compliance with the views of other stakeholders and the balance between public benefits and costs.

References


The official Sofia tourist web-site www.visitsofia.bg (last viewed on 12.03.2015)
With the help of the case study of Aquaworld Resort Budapest (ARB) the paper focuses upon the specific features of the tourism in urban-rural fringe. Although importance of urban-rural fringe has increased in the post-industrial urban development period, the results of literature review show, that investigation of the tourism is rather incomplete in this zone, new analyses seems to be necessary (Weaver, D.B. 2005). This paper contains a descriptive case study of ARB, which is a hotel and water park complex in the urban-rural fringe of Budapest. While the hotel is focusing upon international guests, the spa complex is visited mostly by local residents. The results of research indicate that only the amalgamation of different services and visitors is able to lay the foundation of ARB. Aquaworld’s success is an inherent manifestation of post socialist and post suburban context of political, social and institutional arrangements of the millennial Budapest. In the fringe of this post socialist city, urbanization of capital makes significant gains from the transmittance of more compact city (e.g. more consumers live here), the weak planning environment, and post suburban restructuring in the urban-rural fringe.

Introduction

Metropolises are considered to be among the world’s major tourist destinations. Although these cities are successful in tourism, significant differences can be observed within urban areas. Largest number of tourists visits exclusively destinations in city centres or clearly discernible tourist zones. This is generally typical for foreign tourists therefore accommodations and other services prefer
city centres. However, in the last decades, this situation has changed slightly, due to the processes of suburbanization and transformation of urban tissue of large cities.

Similar phenomena can be detected in the case of the Hungarian capital. Based on statistics, Budapest is ranked as the 12th most visited capital in Europe with 7.8 million overnights in 2013. \(^1\) Budapest has always played a crucial role in the tourism of Hungary (Kovács Z. et al. 2007; Rácz, T. – Smith, M. – Michalkó, G. 2008). 35% of total guest nights and 58% of total foreign guest nights were registered in Budapest in 2013. On the top of this, 88.4% of the city’s guest nights were spent by foreign tourists. The figures indicate that spatial concentration of tourist demand is even slightly higher in Hungary, than ten years ago.

The relevance of tourism inside the metropolitan area (agglomeration) of Budapest is not the same everywhere. The most visited tourist sites can be found in downtown and only few popular destinations are located outside of the city border line (for example Gödöllő, Szentendre and Danube Bend), but they are visited by rather day-only visitors. Although geographical pattern of tourism has not changed radically in the region of Budapest, new visited destinations appeared in the urban-rural fringe after the collapse of socialism (1990). This process entailed the improvement of tourism statistics in the urban-rural fringe as well, but the rate of foreign visitors remains under 30 percent in general (Kovács Z. et al. 2007). Due to geographical and economic factors (better traffic, cheaper and larger lots etc.), some of new attractions have been erected on the periphery in this transition period, like Aquaworld Resort Budapest (ARB), which is opened in 2008. This new a pattern of tourism development isn’t unprecedented in Central-Europe: for example, also in 2008, similar complex was opened in the urban-rural fringe of Prague (Aquapalace Praha).

ARB spa (water park) and hotel complex is operating with a unique service system in the urban-rural fringe of the city, close to the administrative borderline of Budapest, and in the vicinity of housing estates of Újpest-Káposztásmegyer (IV. district of Budapest) and Dunakeszi retail and industrial area (Fig. 1.). The annual number of spa guests exceeds the half-million, and, based on the number of guests and sold bath services, the water park is among the top 10 spas in Hungary. The hotel is also characterized by good economic results: high occupancy rate and revenues.

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\(^1\) A complex ranking of capitals was elaborated in 2010 by Roland Berger Strategy Consultants (see more: https://www.rolandberger.com/media/pdf/Roland_Berger_European_Capital_City_Tourism_20120127.pdf)
The main aim of this paper is to present a descriptive case study of ARB and scrutinize some features of tourism in Budapest’s urban-rural fringe. For positioning of the research we analyze firstly the scientific literature, and secondly, we present a comprehensive description of ARB based on the main data and features. Finally, we interpret the operation of ARB together with the dynamic capitalist urban transition process of Budapest, which creates new spaces and places for housing, economy and tourism in the urban-rural fringe.

Tourism in urban-rural fringe: theoretical background

The importance of urban-rural fringe has increased in the post-industrial urban development period: a plethora of scientific papers and books describe the socio-economic features of this ‘exurban’ zone. However, the investigation of tourism in urban-rural fringe is rather incomplete. David Weaver, one of the most relevant authors of this topic, drew attention repeatedly to the fact that more in-depth research would be needed to determine the main factors and features of the processes (Weaver, D.B. 2005, 2006, 2007). Tourism in this transforming area raises a number of questions from the perspective of visitors and residents (Weaver, D.B. – Lawton, L. 2001, 2004, 2008).

As Weaver wrote in 2005, ‘Within the broader tourism literature, the subfields of rural tourism (...) and urban tourism (...) are well established, but no consideration has been given thus far to the possibility of the exurbs as a distinctive focus. If, however, the tourism literature has neglected the urban–rural fringe, it is also fair to say that the study of the urban–rural fringe within geography and other social sciences has neglected tourism.’ (Weaver, D.B.
Although by the characterization of the tourism development in the fringe, Weaver created categories based on mainly North-American examples. Nevertheless, these types are well-known in Europe and the urban-rural fringe of Budapest as well. He stated, that ‘The six categories of activity that are particularly characteristic of the exurban tourism sector are theme parks and allied attractions, tourist shopping villages, modified nature-based tourism, factory outlet malls, touring and golf courses, allowing that all of these are also found in non-exurban settings.’ (ibid. 25.) The author highlighted that the urban–rural fringe is an inherently unstable area, and ‘political fragmentation and other factors also mean that the exurban orbit of a given city cannot easily establish a coherent destination identity for itself that will attract tourists and serve as a focal point for coherent regional planning.’ (ibid. 31.)

The market here is generally characterized by blurred tourist/non-tourist distinctions, a weak accommodation sector and extremely high visitation levels at some sites (ibid. 23.). Weaver emphasized, that ‘The exurban market consists overwhelmingly of day-only visitors (or ‘excursionists’), with most visitors maintaining overnight accommodations or residences in the adjacent urban area’ (ibid. 28.). The author segmented the tourism demand too: ‘exurban tourism products are patronized by two distinct groups: (i) residents of the adjacent urban area who do or do not technically qualify as ‘tourists’; (ii) non-resident tourists staying in accommodation within the adjacent urban area.’ (ibid. 28.) Summarizing the ideas, Weaver stated that ‘the pervasiveness of instability, fuzzy geographical boundaries, and conflict/competition position the urban–rural fringe as perhaps the ideal venue for appreciating the contours of post-modern tourism dynamics that require unconventional and non-traditional management and planning approaches.’ (ibid. 31.)

Despite the above described special characters, in the last decade, only a few academic researches focused upon the features of tourism of urban-rural fringe. As one of rare exceptions, Booyens and Visser (2010) presented a case study of Parys (South-Africa), in which the authors underlined the importance of local SME’s in the tourism services. The role of localities (e.g. local economy, agencies and government) is extremely important not only in exurban area, but in the inner city fringe, as Long (2010) demonstrated it in the case of Islington District, London. In Canada, Koster, Lemelin and Agnew (2010) analyzed the role of the urban-rural fringe in tourism, partly based on results of Weaver.

As we mentioned, during the transition period, socio-economic and touristic roles of urban-rural fringes have been upgraded in the Central- and Eastern-European metropolitan regions. Due to the process of metropolisation, new tourism destinations were established in the urban-rural fringe. In the case of Bucharest for example, services’ externalization are discernible mainly in the case of sports and leisure time tourism. In regard to the motivations, dynamic,
duration and costs, the emerging new and distinct model of tourism is different from urban tourism (Pintili, R.-D. et al., 2011). Analogue processes were revealed in Budapest, where post socialist development also promoted housing and tourism as well in the transition zone and in the outer residential ring, and the number of guest nights increased abruptly after the mid of 1990’s (Kovács Z. – Wiessner, R. 2004; Rácz, T. - Smith, M. - Michalkó, G. 2008). In spite of these unique processes, regional development and planning usually neglect tourism in the urban-rural fringe in Hungary and Budapest as well, this zone remains disintegrated and ‘confused.’

We can notice in Central-Europe, that although the urban-rural fringe represents a neglected policy space in general, the ‘focus on the rural–urban dimension exposes significant new opportunity spaces, challenging conventional land use theories and models.’ (Scott, A.J. et al. 2013, 43.)

**Description and analysis of ARB**

The Ramada Resort – Aquaworld Budapest hotel and spa complex (from 2015, Aquaworld Resort Budapest, ARB) opened in December 2008, immediately after the outbreak of the financial crisis. The investor was a Hungarian real estate development company, which had finished a large housing construction in the neighbourhood (Homoktővis Apartment House), thus the investor had a considerable local knowledge.

**General description of the complex**

In the following, we present the main significant physical features on the basis of the ARB's website.² The complex is one of the biggest hotel and indoor pool complexes in all Europe, and the Aquaworld water adventure park is said to be Central Europe’s biggest indoor water theme park with 11 slides, 21 pools, a surf pool, a wave pool and further amusement elements makes the complex unique among the touristic attractions of Hungary. As we mentioned above, the water park is located in the northern part of Budapest, just off the Pest abutment of Megyeri Bridge along the new M0 ring.³

The ARB complex occupies a total area of 86,000 m² and the total ground space of the buildings covers 54,000 m². The two parts of the aquatic complex, Aquaworld Budapest, the aquatic adventure park, and Aquaworld Resort Budapest Hotel with its own separated bath unit have a total water surface area of more than 3,300 m² and a water mass of 4,200 m³. The outdoor and the

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The underground car park of the hotel together have a total capacity of more than 1,000 cars.

The karst well, of a bottom-hole temperature of 35°C and a daily water output of 420 m³ is amply sufficient to supply the necessary quantity of water. Waste water is cleaned and made environmental friendly by an in-house cleaning system. Cleaned water is fed back partly to the garden lake and partly to the Mogyoródi stream.

Aquaworld Budapest Water Park is covered by a giant dome, which is five stories high and a staggering 72 meters in diameter. The spherical-cap-shaped dome is constructed with a very special architectural technique developed originally in space research. The monumental replica Angkor temple surrounded by suspension bridges, towers and pools is an outstanding sight. The total unsupported area under the dome is 4,200 m². The maximum capacity of the Aquaworld Budapest water park is 1,800 persons.

Aquaworld Resort Budapest Hotel includes an 8-storey high main building with an undulating external design, and a 4-storey Apartment House with underground connection to the main building. The hotel has a total of 309 rooms, suites and apartments and a total capacity of 838.

In addition to the 1,000 m² conference center located on the first floor, there is also a banquet room with terraces on the 8th floor. The premises are delimited by mobile walls, offering the possibility of numberless variations. A maximum of 15 section rooms can be created, the biggest one with a capacity of 550, but the interconnecting premises are suitable also for hosting expositions or large-scale reception events. The hotel conference center has a capacity of almost 1,000.

The hotel is focusing upon four groups of guests: (i) families, who generally make use of wellness and water facilities; (ii) MICE tourists, who utilize mainly the conference halls. In the hotel, a lot of (iii) business guests stay, who are working at the adjacent retail and industrial centers. Last but not least, a spate of (iv) medical tourists appeared here in recent years, patients make use of medical treatments in the first floor.

**Features of guests, turnover and operation**

The number of guest nights of the hotel had an average of 150,000 in the last three years. The hotel relies on international guests, since 85% of guests are from abroad. The main clientele are the Czechs; the Hungarians are the second largest group only. Otherwise, hotel guests typically come from Central European countries (*Table 1*).
### Nationality of international guests (2012, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2012</th>
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<th>Change in %, 2013/2012</th>
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<tr>
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<td>27 893</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>26 428</td>
<td>26 102</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>15 709</td>
<td>12 852</td>
<td>-18.2</td>
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<td>11 431</td>
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<td>10 375</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10 122</td>
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</table>

*Table 1. Nationality of international guests, in guest nights (2012, 2013)*  
Source: Aquaworld Resort Budapest

In the last three years, the total operating revenue with F&B was around € 8.5 million per year. The occupancy rate was approximately 68% in 2014, which exceeds the average of four-star hotels and wellness hotels in Hungary and Budapest. The ARR (average room rate) had on average € 56-58, which is also almost the highest in this category. The REVPAR (revenue per available room) is about € 40, which represents the best value compared to similar hotels. We have to mention, that price level in Budapest is lower than in Vienna or Prague.

In the spa, the total number of entrants was 530,000 in 2013, which included 400,000 external guests and ca. 130,000 entrants from the hotel (one hotel guest can enter more than once). The total operating revenue had an average of € 3,5 million per year (ca. € 6-7 per one entrant). This means, that Aquaworld water complex is one of the most visited and profitable Hungarian spa. In the ranking of the baths, the Aquaworld is 8th according to the guest number, and 4th on the basis of the total operating revenue. The approximately 400,000 external guests of spa are typically living in the neighbourhood area. 75% of guests are from Budapest, 19.5% come from the neighbouring settlements (mainly from Dunakeszi and Fót) and only 5.5% come from abroad. Although the complex has got an impressive indoor water park, seasonality is apparent: in July and August, the number of guests is higher than 50,000 (1,500-1,700 entrants per
day), in September, this number plummets by half, 22,000 guests per month (700-800 guests per day) (Diagram 1).

Summarizing the main features of the data analysis we can state, that in the last years the ARB gained an outstanding position among the Hungarian four-star and wellness hotels and the hierarchy of Hungarian spas. The reasons can be complex and multifarious. The name “Budapest’ as a marketing brand and the large spa facility of ARB attract foreigners, they serve as basis for the guests of the hotel. Nevertheless, based only on the international hotel guests, the operator can’t maintain this sumptuous and giant water park due to the low Hungarian hotel price level. In this case, if the operator raises the prices, the hotel would be much more expensive than any other accommodations in Budapest, so the occupancy rate would decline. Therefore, the water park department has need of local guests as well. In fact, the spa is maintained by local residents, which is able to continue to serve as an attraction for foreign hotel guests.

As for the system of spatial relations of the ARB we can state, that although employees live more or less in the neighbourhood area (adjacent districts or settlements, like Újpest, Rákospalota, Dunakeszi and Fót), the complex has got loose functioning connections (e.g. bus lines, shuttles, mutual events etc.) to the vibrant downtown. The clientele of ARB is very different from the guests who visit the downtown. It seems that ARB is utilized mainly as a recreation centre for the local and international (especially Central European) guests and families.

**Conclusions and discussions**

Summarizing the case study of ARB we can state, that the high ranked hotel is visited typically by international guests, the water park is very popular with
local residents from adjacent quarters and settlements. Although the mass of local guests exacerbates seasonality, they ensure profitability of the whole complex. This means that the operator needs focus upon both tourists and local inhabitants. Especially in summer and holiday periods, revenues exceed the losses of other seasons.

Our results show, that popular tourist zones and sights in downtown are not real and appreciated attractions for the guests of the ARB. Based on the revealed features we conclude that a tourism attraction in the urban-rural fringe has got loose connections to the tourism of city center. Finally we highlight, that due to the urban-rural fringe is a controversial and partly unregulated zone, the urban planning plays not a decisive role by the development and operation than in downtown.

For further discussions of the tourism features of Budapest’s urban-rural fringe, we consider, that current urban development processes are the inducement of distinct development of urban-rural fringe’s tourism. Uneven development is an inherent characteristic of capital accumulation (Brenner, N. – Theodore, N., 2002), and tourism is regarded as a major avenue of capital accumulation throughout the world (Britton, S.G. 1991, Bianchi, R.V. 2009). Spatial split in capital extraction and accumulation is not a phenomena that comes forward solely among regions. Uneven development concerns also intrametropolitan relations as the neoliberal strategy of capitalism focuses on urbanization of capital (Timár J. 2010). Capital investments fluctuate within metropolitan border as they follow the best prospects of profit. Suburbanization or – talking about Central European settings – deconcentration of urban-rural fringe is a phenomenon of capital accumulation. Spatiality of capital investments reflects the geometry of profitability. Objectives of capital investments can change as neoliberal urbanization progressively modifies land use patterns. Suburbanization with dominant residential use gets started to be functionally diversified, that implies that productive capital investments gain strength in the urban-rural fringe. An ongoing functional diversification of the urban periphery is a post suburban phenomenon, which appears to be overlapped by suburban urbanization cycle in the case of the Central European cities. So, the urbanization of capital causes restructuring of the fringe, whilst capital seeks for the highest return. As suburbanization and residential deconcentration in the urban-rural fringe of Budapest have set up demographic foundation and consumer demand for post suburban land use and services, diversification of capital investments brings to the focus.

Exurban tourism, argues Weaver (2005) can implicate an extremely high visitation level at recreational venues. Leisure tourism as well as shopping appears to be important at the local area of our case study: shopping malls, a golf club and manages supplies visitors’ demand in the area. Aquaworld
however emerges from exurban tourism venues in the post suburban space. In contrast to *Weaver*’s characteristics on exurban tourism, Aquaworld has an international clientele from Central and Eastern Europe as well, and has significant capacities for accommodation services/hotel trade. It proved to be essential, that unique thematic services provided by Aquaworld are embedded in metropolitan economy, that provide a solid foundation for its business success. It targets a commercial niche, that irrespective to visitors’ origin reaches social groups coming from regions similarly affected by neoliberal urbanization, owing similar preferences for post suburban services and environment.

Approaching from investor’s side, distinctiveness of Aquaworld from US exurban tourism venues get more highlighted. Focusing on political settings, that contour capital investments, *Weaver* (2005) underlines fuzzy planning institutions, instable spatial economy, and numerous conflicts of social interest, under which investments taken place. Post social society and space however generate unlike frameworks for neoliberalization. The fact, that Aquaworld project did not create any environmental, social or business tension in the local area is an issue of the heritage of socialist city. Aquaworld’ development plot takes place at the frontier zone of the once socialist compact city, where virtually no tensions were able to be emerged. On the other hand, the location enabled good access to potential consumers, which resulted in an extreme profit at the investor. Another striking feature of post socialist neoliberal restructuring is the weak local state as the outcome of extensive privatization (*Kovács, Z. 2010*). We think that Aquaworld’s success is an inherent manifestation of post socialist and post suburban context of political, social and institutional arrangements of the millennial Budapest. In the fringe of this post socialist city, urbanization of capital makes significant gains from the transmittance of more compact city (more consumers live here), the weak planning environment, and post suburban restructuring it the urban-rural fringe.

**Literature**


Shared, co-created, customized services and their effect on tourist experience

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In the field of tourism co-created and customized services have gained an increased attention. These types of tourism services are often claimed to be emerging products providing a competitive edge. Can these services be considered as a new phenomenon, or are they only the newest trend? First, the paper provides a discussion about conceptualization of shared, co-created, and customized services – arguing about connections and differences between them. The analysis of their effect on tourist experience is based both on quantitative and qualitative data collected through interviews, observations, and on-site questionnaires. Based on results, co-created services tend to lead to more authentic tourist experiences, while a higher level of service customization is contributing to a higher level of experience memorability. Intriguingly, although the demand for shared services is on the rise, the consumer experience itself showed to cause frustration in some cases due to the subjective perception of the undefined service value.

Introduction

In urban experience spaces the boundaries between tourists and locals have become blurred both from perspectives of demand and supply. With the rise of experience society, the importance of experience consumption has increased, the aspects of urban development and planning, management and marketing are moving towards this direction.

The destination management of urban spaces and metropolitan areas has also started to adopt the experience-centric approach. The concept of experience was not unfamiliar for urban destinations, however, it was first considered to be rather a matter of context than a matter of content; they believed it to be a natural supplementary product, not an innovation that could be formed and improved (Stamboulis and Skayannis 2003). Part of the destination management organizations (DMOs) appeared slow to accept the implications of this perspective. King (2000) criticized them for being too focused on promoting the physical attributes of the destination, despite travel being increasingly more
about experiences, fulfillment and rejuvenation. Williams (2006) called for a change of perspective which focused less on destinations and more on the consumers themselves. In his viewpoint, tourism and hospitality failed to take up the fundamental challenge to the orientation of marketing that the experience concept offers. Tourism experience management concept is emphasizing the centrality of the tourist and its consumer experience.

The strategy of experience management can also be observed concerning investments and marketing processes. Stamboulis and Skayannis (2003) consider creating myths essential for the existence of experiences; the narrative overwriting the text written by signs. That is a process rich in knowledge, which cannot possibly occur if the tourism service provider, for example a DMO, focuses only on services. Even during the phase of production (including the creation of experience schemes and the application of certain methods and techniques) the previously obtained knowledge – concerning the possible main interests of the consumers and the future experiences assumed by the consumers (Ooi 2005, Writz et al. 2003) – has to be put to use. Competencies concerning information and service provision, the intelligence of the company plays a key role, and the interaction with the consumer has to have a more active role as well. Therefore business innovations have to be centered on creating new experience-schemes. To achieve that interactive learning processes are needed; moreover, the strategy of experience-based tourism has to rely rather on the incomprehensible, ideal resources, than on material resources (for example environment and infrastructure).

The demand side has changed. Today’s consumers have quite different attitude towards consumption than previous generations. Tourists are looking for unique activities, tailored experiences, special interest focus, experiences in a lifestyle destination setting, living culture, creative spaces and creative spectacles (Gross and Brown 2006). Tourists and consumers in general are not only better educated and wealthier, but also have access to more information than ever before. To satisfy the new consumer needs product development of customized, co-created and sharing services have emerged, and constantly rising on popularity – e.g. Airbnb, Uber, Hop on Hop off sightseeing tours, free guided tours are offering their services in every major city of the developed world.

The aim of the paper is to focus on this theoretical gap related to tourism and leisure experience development by discussing the conceptualization and practical appearance of customized, co-created and shared services in metropolitan and urban spaces.

**Theoretical considerations**

The motivation for visiting an urban destination usually does not derive from its physical qualities but from a strong spiritual and emotional image, the destination experience assumed by the tourist (Morgan et al. 2009). For
example, when tourists in Verona visit Juliet’s balcony, they indulge in a romantic fantasy about Shakespeare’s drama. This overwhelming experience serves as the main motivation for the visit that is the base of the destination product.

Tourism mediators play a crucial role in forming the assumed experiences of tourists and of creating new discoveries during the destination visit, because they direct the tourists’ attention. Tour operators, tour and program providers, tourism promotional authorities, tour guides, travel reviews, guidebooks, and friendly locals are all seen as tourism experience mediators. Ooi (2005) defines them as service providers, individuals or goods, which give advice to tourists what to notice, and how to consume various tourism products.

Despite the fact that various concepts and perceptions exist about tourist experience, they all agree that the appearance of an experience is characterized with a dynamic process. Tourists have different experiences, and they pay attention to different things, even if they all participate in the same activity at the same time and place. The tourism experience mediators help to direct their attention and gazes, and also form the tourists’ interpretations of tourism sights and sites. Tourists often visit a place for a relatively short period of time, they lack local knowledge, so to consume more and better from the visited destination, they are seeking a shortcut to experience the place, and this shortcut is offered by tourism experience mediators. However tourists construct their experiences based on their own (social, cultural etc.) background and interest, according to Ooi (2005) tourist experience mediators contribute to this process. They heighten or hinder the tourist’s experience-involvement.

The consumer experience involvement plays an important role in experience creation; moreover it is one of its main conditions (see e.g. Mossberg 2007, O’Sullivan and Spangler 1998, Pine and Gilmore 1999, Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004). Mental, emotional, social and flow-like experience involvement was identified as various dimensions of experience in context of guided tours (Zátori 2015).

More experienced travelers are looking for deeper, more significant experiences (ETC 2006). Increasingly more consumers become active, well-informed, and rich in connections (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004). It is an emerging trend that tourists do not wish to be labeled as tourists anymore (ETC 2006). Among the new motivations are: to learn something new, to get closer to their inner selves, to be creative and open-minded, to experiment.

Experiences tend to determine the value of urban destinations and DMOs are increasingly using this in positioning their destinations on the market (e.g. Incredible India marketing campaign). The demand is growing for travel that engages the senses, stimulates the mind, includes unique activities, and connects
in personal ways with travelers on an emotional, psychological, spiritual or intellectual level (Arsenault and Gale 2004).

The role of experience starts to obtain key importance concerning destination positioning and marketing. King (2002) draws attention to the fact that DMOs need to have a complete turn in their attitudes; they should no longer identify themselves as the promotional agents of destinations. DMOs should concentrate on creating and communicating such travel experiences, which combine the destination’s important values as a brand and its resources (environmental, cultural, gastronomical etc.) with the aims of travelers and the needs of consumers.

Recent tourism marketing research increasingly focuses on the experience of tourists and the cultural context of a destination. Lichrou et al. (2008) assert that a destination must not only be regarded as a physical space. Places have intangible, cultural historical and dynamic aspects too (Lichrou et al. 2008). They believe that it is not about the product as a result, but about understanding the intangible, a process of experience, the dreams and fantasies of consumers, the meeting of people, interaction between hosts and visitors and other tourists. It concerns a dynamic context in which destinations are simultaneously consumed and produced. Based on the fact that tourists have an image of an urban destination even though they have never been there, the authors suggest to consider destinations metaphorically, as narratives rather than products. This view leaves a room for the concept of interactive, customized, co-creative and sharing service types. One of the reasons behind this trend is that the tourists increasingly looking for a position of a participant rather than a spectator.

**Customized services**

The significance of customization has increased on consumer side. Different modes of customization are applied into product and service design by the suppliers. Pine II (1992) argues that three types of customization exist: adaptive, transparent and collaborative. Standardized product or service is customizable in the hands of the end-user – e.g. mobile app of a city guide. These are examples of adaptive customization. Transparent customization provides unique offers or services to individual customers, without explicitly telling them that the products are customized – such as Google AdWords, or other online offers given based on detected location. Collaborative customization is referred to a process when firms talk to customers to determine the precise product offering that serves well the consumer's needs. This information is then used to specify and design the service that suits that specific customer – such as sightseeing tour customized based on customer’s needs and interest. However, customization can happen also during the provision of the service, too. For example, a sightseeing tour, which can be customized based on the participants’ needs (how long should be the stop at a certain sight, to visit a church from inside or not to etc.).
Co-created services

The term customization and co-creation is sometimes used simultaneously, although they should not be. There is a difference between the conceptualization of customization and co-creation in marketing and management literature. Collaborative customization is the closest to the concept of co-creation, but co-creation is more than that. It involves tourists’ active involvement and interaction with the supplier in every aspect, from product design to product consumption (Payne et al. 2008). The experience co-creation is a process directed by the consumer, which can start anytime when she is emotionally, mentally and physically available, and if she can control the situation, in which the experience is formed (Prebensen and Foss 2011).

Sharing services

The sharing or share economy is a socio-economic system built around the sharing of human and physical resources (Matofska 2014). Sharing service is based on collaborative consumption. As a phenomenon, it is a class of economic arrangements in which participants share access to services rather than having individual ownership or restricted availability (Botsman and Rogers 2010). Sharing services represent a disintermediation of the conventional market. By rising on popularity, it can lead to a threat for the conventional market players (e.g. Uber in Spain), or a threat of market growth (e.g. Airbnb for hotel sector). In context of guided sightseeing tours, free guided tours are considered to be such a service type, because it is a sharing, and not selling, of human resources, to which anyone can have a free access, because the availability is not restricted by a fix price.

The difference between co-created and sharing services is that while co-creation requires collaborative value creation, co-created value is not a necessity for sharing services. Sharing service in fact means disintermediation – where individuals share their human and physical resources without the intermediation of the conventional market structures.

The paper asks how different service types influence the tourist experience. The tourist experience, just as other consumer experience, is a multidimensional construct comprised of a number of external and internal factors that shape and influence consumer experiences, which can exist only if the participating consumer is willing and able to participate (Walls et al. 2011).

The main indicators of tourist experience are memorability (Ritchie et al. 2011, Kim et al. 2011, Zátori 2015) and authenticity (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Smith and Zátori 2015; Zátori 2015). Lashley (2008) studies and defines tourist experience from the perspective of host and guest, and define it as emotionally engaging, which leads to memorability.
Authenticity is a central concept in contemporary consumption (Arnold and Price 2000). Constructive authenticity and existential authenticity can be viewed as results of consumption, because they are perceived by consumer (opposed to objective authenticity). Constructive authenticity is reflecting a personal evaluation of genuineness, while existential authenticity derives from the perception of (reaching) an authentic state of being during the act of consumption (Wang 1999).

**Methodology**

The subjects of the research were tour providers offering city sightseeing. The research was located in Budapest, Hungary. The data collection was realized during June 2012 and August 2013. The sample consisted of the managers, guides and customers (tourists). 11 tour providers participated in the research, which produced 22 observed tours, 18 tour guide interviews, 11 manager interviews, and a survey with a sample sized of 348. Quantitative and qualitative methods were applied: interview with the management and tour guides, observation of the tours, and on-site questionnaires.

*Small group tour providers* specialize on smaller size group tours, they usually organize walking tours, cycling tours and tours on Segways for the tourists visiting Budapest. Some tours are guaranteed (it is realized even with 2 participants), but others are held only if a minimal number of participants is reached. Participants of the tours are individuals forming random groups, but pre-arranged small group tours are also common. Free guided tours were also listed in this category.

*Alternative tour providers* typically organize special themed tours for which a particular type of demand has formed, and it became popular among Hungarians, too. The tour providers are ‘alternative’, because they apply different methods and tools than the traditional tour providers. It is also a type of small group tours.

*Big group tours* serve the needs of leisure and individual tourists, are mostly guaranteed tours, while the group is formed randomly in most of the times (e.g. Hop-on Hop-off bus tour).

**Results**

Based on primary the presence of customized, co-created and ‘sharing economy’ service characteristics are analyzed in context of guided sightseeing tours.

**Customization**

In case of small-group tours, tour routes are mainly set; documentation is provided for the content of the guiding, which can be used in a flexible way by
tour guides, so the tour guides can decide about how much freedom they give to the tourists of the group, or how much spontaneous elements do they allow during the tour. Some of the tour guides prioritized the tourist needs rather than the planned program. ‘The tourist’s experience is important not the experience which the tour guide thinks is important’ (Small group tour provider 4 – Guide 1)

What was also found to be a crucial factor is the skill of the tour guide to know well the tourist behavior, and get to know their needs and anticipated experience. *Insight into human nature is needed: what the tourist wants*’ (Small group tour provider 2 – Guide 1)

How customization happens? The guide has the freedom to give a personal touch to the tour, so the guiding becomes customized to the group. Face to face interaction with the guide showed to be important. It was observed that the smaller number of participants, the better customization opportunities for the service. These results were found while studying consumption, not previous service design. Previous service design is based on customer’s request, and characterizes mainly non-guaranteed, organized sightseeing tours. Guaranteed tours have a fixed route, and are possible to customize to a certain extent only during the tour.

**Co-creation**

The research confirmed that customization does not necessary mean co-creation, but co-creation requires customization. Manifestation of co-creation was captured during alternative tours, where participants added knowledge to the tour by sharing facts, stories and memories.

The results show that co-created services support the experience authenticity to a bigger extent – especially existential authenticity, while those small group tours characterized both by customization and co-creation tend to engage the consumer the most (experience involvement), which consequently leads to a higher level of memorability.

**Customization or co-creation?**

Due to its nature, big group Hop-on Hop-off sightseeing tours have the highest standardization rate on account of the audio guide. This type of automatization cannot be characterized by the concept of co-creation (Prahalad, 2004), as neither the resulting degree of freedom, nor the self-service do necessarily result in experience co-creation.

How customization happens in case of Hop-on Hop-off tours? The consumers are given a free hand in creating their own tour. The route is fixed, but the stops
and the time spent there is not. This type of tour is highly customizable, but co-creation is not supported.

**Sharing services**

Observed sharing services were identified in free guided sightseeing tours. Free guided tours are not totally free, but the tourist is expected to give a tip at the end of the tour, and the amount of the tip is not fixed. Based on observations and interviews, sharing services seemed to lead to frustration in some cases, both on consumer and provider side, due to the subjective perception of the undefined service value. ‘Should I pay? How much?’ (Tourist 6) ‘Oh, I only got a small tip!’ (Small group tour provider 1 – Guide 2) One of the service providers was enthusiastic about this business model, pointing out that this way they make the city tour available even for those with a tight budget.

**Discussion**

The experience co-creation is a process directed by the consumer, which can start anytime when s/he is available. Different types of guided tours can influence the consumer’s experience involvement in the following ways. In case of a staged experience (Pine and Gilmore 1999), where the service provision and the experience is staged, and the guides act as an actor, customization is not an option. However, if the tourist has a chance of free choice of what to focus on, how much time should s/he spend with a given activity, s/he will be able of engagement and formation of experience, therefore the possibility to create a memorable experience with personal meaning is bigger. The service provider applying staged experience concept aims to stage and perform the experience on high quality level. That is how the service aims to engage the customer to the experience; however, this does not necessary providing a high degree of freedom for the customer.

In another case, if a tour provider does not focus on consumer experience, it might happen that the tourist will face limitations during experience-involvement (e.g. not enough time available for a sight), so the experience consumption does not fulfill, and the experience might not become meaningful and memorable, or the other extreme prevails and the experience will become memorable in a negative way. Mainly needs of passive tourists with ‘attraction check-list’ mentality is possible to compensate with this type of service, while others can feel themselves being limited or might find the tour boring.

Tour providers using methods of experience co-creation approach (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004), aim to engage the customer by offering big number of interaction points, and forms possibilities for experience co-creation and customization. By enabling customization, it creates optimal degree of freedom for the tourist’s experience involvement. Meanwhile the consumer can decide to
what extent and how s/he wishes to be involved to the experience creation. This requires a higher degree activity and participation from the tourist. Co-created and sharing services enable tourists to build connections with locals, which is viewed as one of the crucial elements of quality destination experiences (Zátori and Smith 2015), especially in urban and metropolitan areas (Zátori 2014).

**Conclusion**

Co-created and shared service types are still in their infancy, thus are expected to shape and grow. This will be supported by the trend that tourists are seeking meaningful, authentic experiences, new type of services allowing sense of freedom and self-expression. However, the authenticity of shared services has been doubted by some who argue that the main motivation of many providers is creating easy profit (while overcoming the strict regulations and taxation), and not the sharing of experiences, human or physical resources. The recent and future market growth and development will unveil the character and role of this emerging service type.

The main limitation of the study is seen in the place specific character of the research (data was collected only in Budapest), and sector based analysis (only sightseeing tour providers were invited to participate). Realizing the research in different metropolitan or urban destination could lead to different findings, even if some of the popular tour types are based on the same concept worldwide – see Hop-on Hop-off tours, free guided tours.

Future research should investigate the specific characteristics of the various types of services, and their effect on tourist experience. It could be interesting to study if these ‘global’ tour concepts – such as Hop-on Hop-off tours or free guided tour – have any distinct local specialties, and if yes, what are these. That is why this paper calls for studying experience involvement in urban destinations into more extent with qualitative and quantitative tools. Another question arises, if any differences regarding customization, co-creation and sharing services can be observed between sightseeing tours in urban and rural areas.

**References**


Share Economy in Metropolitan Tourism.
The role of authenticity-seeking

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‘What’s Mine is Yours’ – the popular book by Rachel Botsmann and Roo Rogers has become the slogan of the ‘share economy’, which has exploded in recent years. In tourism, the share economy movement mainly affects the accommodation sector. In addition to offering free or affordable overnight stays, share websites such as couchsurfing.org and airbnb.com also claim that visitors to urban areas will enjoy a new, authentic experience. The leading research questions like: ‘Who participates in the tourism share economy?’ ‘What motivations and expectations lie behind the offer and use of share accommodation?’ ‘What experiences have been gained?’ will be explored on the basis of various quantitative and qualitative empirical surveys in two urban settings: Berlin, as an example of an international metropolitan tourism destination, and Trier, as a case study for a smaller city with a greater focus on the domestic market and a target group oriented mainly towards traditional cultural tourism. The aim of this article is not only to help discover what collaborative consumption in tourism means to ‘explorer tourists’ in search of authentic experiences off the beaten track and outside the tourist bubble, but also to analyse, more globally, the role that sharing in tourism is likely to play in the future and the question raised by Trivett et al. (2013) as to its impact on the traditional tourism industry and the future of travel.

Share economy and the role it plays in urban tourism

Since the book by Rachel Botsman and Roo Rogers ‘What’s Mine is Yours – How Collaborative Consumption is Changing the Way we Live’ became a best seller, the ‘share economy’ has become a buzzword in current debates in society. Originally regarded as a result of economic decline following the financial crisis in 2008/09 (cf. Heinrichs & Grunenberg 2012, p. 2), today’s connotation has shifted so that the term is used in many contexts and even as a vehicle for revisiting existing lines of discourse. These range from discussions about collaborative consumption supporting environmentally friendly practices – in line with
the sustainability paradigm – to criticism of capitalist consumption patterns and self-expression as a post-materialistic lifestyle.

Different factors drive this development. Above all, the Internet and its function as an enabler and facilitator of the matchmaking process between the demand and supply side of goods and services represents the heart of the share economy (cf. Linne 2014, p. 9). For a long time, high transaction costs and a lack of critical mass inhibited the resale and reuse of second-hand products or products that are used only temporarily. Constant access to the mobile Internet, together with the emergence of large trading platforms such as eBay, provided the basic conditions required to make the share economy and its sub-branches accessible and manageable for large parts of society (cf. Behrendt, Blättel-Mink & Clausen 2011). This boom was also supported by technological transformations, also in participants’ value system – particularly in trend-sensitive and trend-responsive environments. Changing values towards post-materialistic positions play a similar role here as people’s increasing awareness of sustainability issues.

The blurring of a previously clear differentiation between the producer and the consumer and the resulting hybrid form of the ‘prosumer’ (Surhone, Timpledon & Marseken 2010) was not a new phenomenon of the share economy. This has been discussed in depth, particularly in tourism, mainly with regard to the role played by consumers in co-creating the tourist experience (cf. Günther 2006, p. 57, Kagermeier 2011, p. 57f.; Pappalepore, Maitland & Smith 2013, p. 234f.). Along this line, Nora Stampfl asserts: “Sharing is nothing new, it has always been part of human co-existence’ (2014, p. 13; author’s translation).

The results of our online survey (n = 271), which will be presented in the course of this article, reveal a similar position. Different variations of traditional offline sharing exist that are widely distributed and common, as the following examples illustrate: more than 80 per cent of the respondents stated that they had bought or sold something at a flea market. Three-quarters have hired a car or a bicycle; 75 per cent have also benefited from social or charitable offers or have provided second-hand goods to others. Finally, two-thirds have more than once used other people’s knowledge and skills or offered their own knowledge and skills, for example for private tuition, to help someone move, or in repair cafés.

The same applies for tourism, where these analogue forms of practices interpreted recently as sharing are well known (cf. Hartmann & Pasel, 2014, p. 90f.). It is common for people to visit friends and relatives (VFR), usually in urban tourism. The VFR segment accounted for some 26.2 million overnight stays in Berlin in 2011, exceeding the number of overnight stays in commercial accommodation (22.4 million nights) (cf. Berlin Tourismus & Kongress GmbH 2012, p. 6). In other words, every Berlin resident put up friends, acquaintances and relatives for approximately 7.5 nights that year. Against this background, the heated debate about the anticipated negative impacts of Airbnb, Wimdu and
9flats on Berlin’s housing market or the accommodation business needs to be qualified. The number of Airbnb listings in Berlin ranges from 6,000 to 20,000 rooms or apartments (cf. Bleuel 2014, Halser 2014, Vasagar 2014, Ziegert & Czycholl 2014). Starting from a more detailed analysis conducted by the magazine Capital (cf. Laube et al. 2014, p. 85), which identified some 6,000 apartments in the heart of Berlin, it is realistic to assume that Airbnb has around 10,000 listings in the whole of Berlin (cf. Kutschbach 2014). This also corresponds to the latest figures published on the Airbnb website, which state that 245,000 guests stayed with 9,400 Airbnb hosts in 2013 (cf. Stüber 2014). Given the 50 million or so overnight stays in Berlin, the roughly 10,000 rooms and apartments offered by Airbnb appear to constitute a bearable number, particularly compared to the almost 140,000 commercial rooms (Statistisches Bundesamt 2014 b) and all of the guest rooms, couches and airbeds offered by Berlin’s almost 2 million households (Statistisches Bundesamt 2014 b) to occasionally visiting friends, acquaintances or relatives.

The prevalence of traditionally existing and well-established examples of offline collaborative consumption illustrates that this phenomenon is an evolution of existing trends in society, rather than a cultural turnaround (cf. Heinrichs & Grunenberg 2012, p. 4). In this paper, the share economy is therefore not considered to be a fundamental paradigm shift. Instead, it is understood as an evolutionary development of existing societal and behavioural transformations, which is certainly being accelerated by the aforementioned multi-dimensional shift in values. Due to the leading role played by the Internet and the wide range of social media options available, these transformations have gained a previously unknown dynamism with unforeseeable ultimate consequences.

Considering the central driving forces behind share offers in tourism, it can be assumed that the search for authentic visitor experiences (cf. Gilmore & Pine 2007) may play a major role. For a long time, visitors have been yearning for off-the-beaten-track experiences outside the confined lines of the tourist bubble, particularly in city tourism (cf. Judd 1999, Freytag 2008, Maitland & Newman 2009, Stors & Kagermeier 2013, Stors 2014). Although traditional backpackers’ motivations and interests may differ to those of modern-day couchsurfers (cf. Schulz 2013, p. 30ff), the general roots of this quest for authentic experiences must surely lie in the milieu of the explorer and drifter, identified by Cohen in 1972.

The present article aims to provide an empirically based contribution to the current debate on the role of the share economy in tourism. The article focuses on questions regarding the socio-demographic and motivational structure of participants in online share platforms as well as the experiences of both the demand and supply side of collaborative consumption.
Methodology

In order to explore the aforementioned research questions, a number of qualitative and quantitative research methods have been combined, which will be presented below.

Online survey gives an impression of share economy participants

A digital questionnaire was created to gain an initial impression of the socio-demographic and motivational structure of share economy participants. The main objective of this online survey was to identify people’s reasons for participating in the share economy. In addition, the barriers and constraints preventing potential prosumers from participating in the share economy were addressed (cf. Kagermeier, Köller & Stors 2015). It was decided to use an online questionnaire as a data generation tool for several reasons. One reason why this tool was considered to be ideal for share economy users is their high Internet affinity. It also enabled the large group of non-users and those who have already left share platforms to be addressed in addition to share users.

In order to collect this data, convenience sampling was conducted involving students, employees and mainly young Tourism graduates from a medium-sized German university. Sampling resulted in 271 completed questionnaires. Due to this specific selection, it cannot be claimed that the results are statistically representative of the German population as a whole. As Heinrichs & Grunenberg (2012, p. 13) illustrated, there is a high positive correlation between the age, level of education and income of share economy participants. By selectively addressing mainly young academics, our sample contains a disproportionately large number of “social-innovative collaborative consumers’ (“Sozialinnovative KoKonsumenten”) (cf. Heinrichs & Grunenberg, 2012, p. 14; similar to Nielsen 2014, p. 9) in our sample. Compared to the German population, one quarter can be assigned to this group (cf. ibid.). Regarding the awareness of Internet platforms that offer overnight stays, the bias becomes even more striking. According to a representative GfK survey, two-thirds of the population are unaware of offers such as Airbnb (cf. Marquart & Braun, 2014), whereas in our sample, only 1.5 per cent did not know of such possibilities. However, focusing on such a target group enabled more precise statements to be made on their motivations for taking part in share activities, which was the main reason for conducting the study. Two additional methods were applied to explore the initial results generated by the online survey in greater depth.

Qualitative interviews with Airbnb hosts in Berlin and Trier

A specific segment of the large number of collaborative consumption offers was identified and analysed in order to gain a clear picture of share economy participants. The authors decided to focus on the tourist way relevant segment of pri-
vate accommodation within the share economy that gained considerable media interest in recent years. Since there are even different suppliers in this small section of the share economy, our analysis focused solely on the market leader Airbnb.

Since there were relatively few Airbnb listings in Trier during the research period in July 2014, it was possible to conduct a full survey. All Airbnb hosts in Trier were contacted via the online platform. The 28 hosts were asked if they would participate in a personal interview; 9 agreed. Since there were considerably more Airbnb hosts in Berlin – namely more than 10,000 – it was not possible to contact all of them. Instead, the number of requests was based on the number of listings in Berlin’s districts. The most important districts were those with more than 1,000 listings, which in July 2014 were Prenzlauer Berg, Friedrichshain, Kreuzberg, Neukölln and Berlin Mitte. A total of 46 requests for interview were sent in these areas, resulting in 13 interviews. In the districts with between 250 and 1,000 listings (Schöneberg, Wilmersdorf, Charlottenburg, Moabit and Wedding), at least one interview was conducted per district. Fewer Airbnb hosts were contacted and interviewed in other districts. After a one-week interview pretest in March 2014, interviews were conducted over the space of four weeks in August and September 2014. Despite the relatively short data collection period, approximately 100 requests were sent to Airbnb hosts, resulting in 25 personal interviews. This extensive data provides a solid basis for conducting an in-depth analysis of motivational structures and interaction between Airbnb hosts and guests.

Quantitative questionnaire to gain a better understanding of the demand side

In order to enhance the results of share economy participants in general, a third method was applied. A quantitative questionnaire in German and English was distributed to a number of Airbnb hosts in order to collect detailed information about the socio-demographic and motivational structure of Airbnb guests in Berlin. The aim was to gain a deeper understanding of their specific motivations and experiences in a certain destination. It would also have been desirable to conduct extensive qualitative interviews with this group of users, but they are difficult to approach and it would have been very time-consuming. For the present article, 61 questionnaires completed by respondents from Berlin and Trier were analysed.

Characteristics of share economy participants

The aim of this section is to characterise users of share economy offers – particularly those related to tourism in general and touristic accommodation in particular.
In our sample, the distribution of travel experiences on the Internet (reading and writing) is the most common touristic practice with regard to collaborative consumption (cf. Fig. 1). Other practices dedicated to the share economy are less well known. In particular, free guided tours with local inhabitants of a city, such as those belonging to the Global Greeter Network (cf. Stors & Klein 2014), are the least well-known practice; only one in nine have been on such a tour. However, almost one in four respondents can imagine participating in such a tour in the future. With regard to touristic overnight stays, nearly one third of all respondents have booked a room or an apartment via platforms such as Airbnb at least once, and 8 per cent offer accommodation.

Figure 1: Experiences with touristic share economy offers (N = 271)

Figure 2 also shows that willingness to participate in the share economy is related to the respondents’ age. The 25 to 30 age group, which has already experienced collaborative consumption, has the highest proportion of people willing to participate in the share economy (40 per cent). Those least interested are the 50+ age group. Nonetheless, in general the sample demonstrates a high affinity towards sharing practices compared to the German population. The GfK representative survey yielded 12.5 per cent as the highest value within different age groups using sharing overnight stays and 4.7 per cent as the lowest (cf. Marquart & Braun 2014).

These findings regarding the respondents’ age structure are similar to those generated by the quantitative questionnaires distributed to Airbnb hosts and statements hosts made about their guests:

‘I would say it is a clientele that is well educated. And in general, it is a clientele that is open to learn new things, unlike those you get to know in hotels. (...) There are often young people who come. Mostly, there are people between 23 up to 30 years, something like that. But I also had a woman older than 70’ (Host_Berlin_21).
A comparatively young age structure was also identified. However, the main group of hosts is the 30 to 50 age group. This group also has experience in other segments of the share economy, such as online and offline swapping, selling and hiring goods and services; they belong to a medium income group.

![Figure 2: Experiences with accommodation sharing (Airbnb and the like) (N = 271)](image)

In order to conduct a more detailed characterisation of the respondents beyond mere socio-demographic figures, we created a profile of their personalities using a five-point Likert-scale (cf. Fig. 3).

Besides age, which is illustrated above, there are no significant differences within the sample, for example between students and professionals. Also with regard to the use of share offers, there are only marginal differentiations in personality between users and non-users. One reason for this is likely to be that the sample was drawn from a share affine population, which also means that these results cannot be translated easily to the German population. However, it should be noted that share economy participants are slightly more risk tolerant and open to new things than their non-user counterparts.

The personality profile above includes the results of the online survey as well as the questionnaires distributed to Airbnb hosts. However, no striking distinctions can be made between the two groups. We were also unable to identify any major differences between people who used couchsurfing (for more details, see: Hartmann & Pasel 2014, p. 93et seq.) and Airbnb clients.

One comparatively strong feature that most share economy users have in common is their openness to new things and their sociable personality. This is also mirrored in the descriptions Airbnb hosts gave of their guests. The hosts describe their guests as open, sociable and communicative.
In contrast, financial motivations are less relevant than expected. Actual and potential users of share accommodation are no more economical or thrifty than non-users. At least, their reason for participating in touristic share offers is not that they are unable to afford anything else. Their internal driving force must be another kind of motivation.

**Driving forces behind participation in the share economy – a guest perspective**

All of the methodological approaches taken are designed to enable socio-demographic data to be collected about the respondents and their personality and to gain a deeper insight into the motivational dimensions for participating in the share economy.

Figure 4 illustrates various potential motives for using private share accommodation and how the respondents evaluated them. As expected, the economic dimension within the motivational structure is of relevance (“saving money”, “visiting destinations that would otherwise be too expensive”), but it is not the only driving force. Similar results can also be found in Liedtke’s study, which focuses solely on couchsurfing: in this study, too, financial aspects were less important than other motives, such as meeting new people, cultural exchange and establishing new friendships (cf. Liedtke 2011, p. 34f). Visitors’ expectations related to specific experiences at the destination – such as having direct contact to the local population, gaining insider information from the host about bars,
restaurants or the neighbourhood in general, and experiencing the destination from the locals’ perspective – are at least as relevant as the monetary factor. These are the most important motives in the leisure segment in particular. More general aspects, such as ‘expanding the horizon’ or ‘trying new things’ together with recommendations from friends are also relevant, but they are much less important than those dedicated to the on-site visitor experience.

Figure 4: Motivations of share accommodation users – differentiated by Airbnb and Couchsurfing users (N = 112 in online survey)

In a nutshell, the online survey revealed two leading motivational dimensions that were supported by the quantitative questionnaires distributed and the qualitative interviews conducted with Airbnb hosts.

Comparing the three lines in Figure 4, it becomes obvious that no significant differences exist between Airbnb users and couch surfers. The only noticeable deviation can be found in the social contact items ‘meeting new people’ and ‘direct contact with the local population.’ Couch surfers seem to attach greater im-

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importance to these very specific social objectives, while differences decrease in the next item – gaining insider tips from the host.

A final finding that is worthy of note is the disproportionately high relevance the financial motive has in the business traveller segment compared to leisure travellers; for the latter, it is just one motive of many.

**Monetary dimension**

The role of financial motivation became a key aspect in the analysis of the quantitative offline questionnaires. This survey revealed that one-third of leisure guests and half of business tourists booked private accommodation via platforms such as Airbnb to save money. Leisure visitors also stated that these share platforms enable them to visit destinations that they would otherwise be unable to afford.

**Interaction between hosts and guests as an important element of the visitor experience**

Besides the financial aspect, personal interaction between hosts and guests plays a major role for the majority of the tourists interviewed. In particular, visitors from the leisure segment consider it very important to get to know new people (significant deviation to business travellers) and to receive personal information and recommendations from the host (also a significant deviation). This element is also reproduced in the contact intensity between hosts and guests. Based on 58 questionnaires completed, one in seven stated that contact was limited to formalities, e.g. receiving keys or brief information about the room/apartment. In some cases, a third party dealt with these formalities (cf. Fig. 5). In one in four cases, the host had also prepared written information for the guest. Almost half of the visitors said that the host provided personal information about the city; another 12 per cent undertook activities with the host. In all of the latter cases, personal information and joint activities were supplemented by written information about the city.

![Figure 5: Interaction between hosts and guests](image)

*(N = 58 in an offline questionnaire distributed to Airbnb hosts)*
Qualitative interviews with the hosts confirmed that most had personal contact with their guests: “Up to now, all new guests have been welcomed by me or my family” (Host_Trier-1, author’s translation). These personal contacts often include brief conversations about the city, the host’s favourite sights or insider tips.

‘I show them the room, have a chat and hand over the keys. I give them tips about the city, things that you can do in the neighbourhood’ (author’s translation) (Host_Trier_9).

‘I told him about the sights that I think are interesting. I told him about the wall memorial. (...) That’s something that I like to show people (Host_Berlin_21).’

In addition to these two general motivational dimensions, a final specific aspect was identified in the course of the on-site personal interviews.

**Individuality of the facilities and design of the accommodation**

The qualitative interviews conducted with the hosts revealed an element that was underestimated in the previous quantitative surveys. Due to their relatively intense guest contact, Airbnb hosts were able to observe that visitors greatly appreciate the ambience of private accommodation: “They always say (...) the pictures [on the Internet] are very attractive and outstanding. And they like to have something more individual, not a hotel’ (author’s translation) (Host_Trier-4). As a result, not only direct contact with the host and the creation of an inside perspective contribute to the specific visitor experience of Airbnb and the like, but also the design and amenities of the accommodation.

‘And those who participate in something like that [Airbnb], and say, I don’t want to go to a hotel, don’t head for a standardised 70s-style flat, but prefers the charm of an old Berlin building. (...) But I think – for a relatively low price – they want this feeling: that's Berlin. A hostel, in contrast, is of course completely interchangeable; it always looks the same everywhere. I think that's the first thing they want’ (author’s translation) (GG_Berlin-15).

Finally, further aspects are also relevant when it comes to choosing private accommodation in the share economy. Some visitors stated that these online platforms are easy to use, offering a comparison of different accommodation and prices, and fast access to relevant information. For others, the straightforward and instant contact and communication with the host is the greatest advantage. In addition, both the quantitative surveys and the qualitative interviews revealed that the specific location of the rooms and apartments within a city or even a neighbourhood may be highly relevant to visitors, and may be the decisive factor for choosing private accommodation over a hotel.
Summary

Since no major constraints or negative experiences could be identified (cf. Kagermeier, Köller & Stors 2015) and about 25 per cent of the German population can be characterised as having an affinity towards share options, it can be concluded that collaborative consumption in general has the potential to become more than a niche market in tourism.

As expected, the monetary dimension naturally plays an important role when it comes to choosing share economy accommodation. However, the survey revealed that other dimensions are at least as important. In addition to practical reasons (hosts are less bureaucratic, cooking space, practical overview in Airbnb, instant mailing with host, more flexible), aspects relating to authenticity also play a major role. This concerns not only social interaction between guests and hosts, but also the location of the flats/rooms within the city (in residential quarters). Personal contact is a key motivation for both hosts and guests – even if it is not usually very intense, generally concerning sharing inside knowledge about the city, and so on. In particular, social interaction between hosts and guests can be presumed to be the “authentic” experience that certain travellers long for.

However, it is impossible to predict how visitors will respond to a recipient commercialisation of professional suppliers, which is expected to occur when the share economy reaches maturity stage. Similar to the traditional life-cycle of other tourism products, this expected professionalization will open this market to a larger group of share economy participants which, on the down side, could induce ‘explorer tourists’ to move on and search for other new, supposedly “real authentic” experiences. Overall, the share economy appears to be nothing other than a further step in the traditional product innovation cycle, where new offers are invented by pioneers and innovators to become commodified and demanded by a broader public.

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Creativity, a concept more and more important in everyday life has become very influential in tourism as well. Tourists of the so-called creative tourism wish to gain personal experience of local culture during their travel. This present research does not focus on the characteristics of the tourists but on the nature of services. The presence or the lack of creative elements in the tourism of a metropolis does have important consequences in the formation of the general scope. We have chosen Budapest to be the location of our present research. Creative elements different from the usual supply were investigated that may be attractive for tourists. In the analysis of the supply both physical and intellectual challenges were examined. As a result the significance and the characteristics of creative and active supply were circumscribed.

Introduction

Creative economy and creative sectors have gained special importance since the late 90’s and early 2000’s in relation to various fields of economy and culture. These features are reflected in Creative Economy Report stating that creative economy is a sector producing income and workplace that helps social integration, multidimensional culture and human development (UNCTAD 2008).

The need for creativity is a significant factor in various terrains of the operation of tourism. It is the tourist on the one hand who wishes to spend his time with creative activity, and on the other, it appears as an expectation towards the service providers. The concept of creative tourism evidently first appeared in the
field of cultural tourism. As a result of the success cultural tourism has become the terrain of mass tourism resulting in the appearance of niche products inside culture (Santa Fe, 2008) Creative tourism has come into being as a response to this claim.

It is these ideas that have given inspiration for our research on the one hand, while on the other, it seemed puzzling why it was the shooting range that leads the top list of the most successful places in Budapest in TripAdvisor comments in 2013. Is it just a onetime success or does it mean service providers have understood the new challenge and have increased opportunities for creative supply in the capital? This was the question we wanted to find the answer to.

**Theoretical background**

The first step of our research was to reveal the theoretical background. According to Richard and Raymond (2000) creative tourism is ’tourism which offers visitors the opportunity to develop their creative potential through active participation in learning experiences which are characteristic of the holiday destination where they are undertaken’. The fields of realisation are the following: arts and crafts, design, cookery, gastronomy and wine making, health and healing, language, spirituality, nature and landscape, sports and past times. Secondary literature proves that any further development and realisation in the field should be culture related and culture specific. Creative tourism is regarded as a third generation phenomenon with a basic motivation for the tourist to meet local people and living culture through personal and creative experience. The definition of 2008 Santa Fe conference claims ’Creative tourism is travel directed toward an engaged and authentic experience, with participative learning of arts, heritage, or special character of a pace, and it provides a connection with those who reside in this place and create this living culture’.

To interpret the phenomenon researchers analysed the target groups to see along what demographic and sociological features and according to what motivations these tourist can be described to see what factors influenced them to choose this kind of activity (Raymond 2003, Tan, Luh & Kung, 2014). To describe them new terminologies have appeared in the secondary literature such as the term **skilled consumers** (Richard & Wilson, 2006), the **postmodern tourists** (Jelinčić & Žuleva, 2012) and the **creative tourists** (Raymond, 2003). Besides all these it seems evident that creative tourism is conceived in every big city as a phenomenon in close relation to the characteristics if the place (e.g. Barcelona or Paris). Categories logically can only be defined by the specific features of the supply. Since creative supply is mostly focused in big cities UNESCO created the Network of creative Cities in 2004. The basic principle behind the new concept is that culture plays an outstanding role in the reformation and sustainable development of cities. Presently 69 cities are members of the network in seven different fields of creative industry such as literature, cinema,
music, craft and folk arts, design, media arts and gastronomy (UNESCO 2014). Unfortunately there are no Hungarian cities among the members yet.

To summarize we can say researches in the field of creative tourism put the main focus on terminology and on the characteristics of demand. As far as supply is concerned creative industry is being characterised from the point of view of the features of the given cities.

Characteristics of the research

The mainline of our research was to show the main elements of creative tourism in Budapest: first of all whether they exist at all, and if so, what types of supplies they involve. Despite the main points found in the secondary literature the focus of our interest was not to list new opportunities created by creative tourism, but to see what further services have appeared besides the traditional ones that need the activity and creativity of the tourist. This means our aspect is new in terms of what approaches have appeared up till now in scholarly summaries.

The whole research spanned over a year: this present study summarises the first period between September and December 2014. We listed and summarized the elements of Budapest Tourism targeted by city visitors that need special activity and creativity. We did field work and we took part personally in some programmes (colour run, exit games, trans-dance) and we analysed homepages.

Results

During the research we surveyed several touristic opportunities where creativity and activity are significant elements of the service. A part of our results was to list and categorize the findings to make a clear overview of the surveyed supply according to different aspects like novelty and location.

The following categories were characterized:
- Traditional elements of Budapest Tourism,
- Partly or wholly new elements of supply,
  - new interpretations of traditional elements,
  - absolutely new elements of supply,
- Creative supplies and events at locations in the vicinity of Budapest labelled as Budapest attractions.

Due to limitations of volume this present paper wishes to show only one of the three categories i.e. the analysis of partly or wholly new elements of Budapest tourism supply.

While examining the creative side of tourism supply it is important to underline that there are more and more often strange elements like unusual locations or means of transportation, new thematic structures etc. to be spotted included in traditional supplies such as city tours, catering, theme parks, museums and
events reflecting new initiations. Such unusual terrains of catering were ruin pubs or wine dinners introduced roughly a decade ago in Budapest. As far as theme parks are concerned besides the Budapest Zoo and the Amusement park new ideas were realised as paintball courses and challenge parks. Traditional city tours were completed with unique opportunities like the River Ride (floating city bus) or Segway tours, or Budapest 100 (walking tours showing Budapest buildings turning 100 years old that given year with the opportunity to get excess to buildings otherwise closed for the public). The so-called Retek (wing) tour gave special opportunities for team building in the stalactite cave of Mátyás Hill.

On the basis of these facts we created two sub-categories in our system under the main point of partly or wholly new Budapest supplies where here are on the one hand possibilities where traditional elements are offered in a new way, or, there are the ones that are absolutely new.

Traditional supply in new interpretation are phenomena like city tours completed with street performances (ghost tour), crime dinners, and one of the running races called colour run. Creative services that turned up without any antecedents were listed among the absolutely new supplies.

The wide range of the latter possibilities was further divided according to the quality and the extent of activity.

Sport events:
- city barrier run – ’Burger King Brutal Run Budapest 1.0’
  It was first organized in Budapest in 2014 (but before that in Nyáregyháza in 2012) It is a real novelty because of the nature of the barriers typical for cities. Because of the huge number of applies after several extensions of the race the final number was fixed in 1700.
- Underground bicycle race ’Mofêm – Underworld Cup’
  It has been organised since 2010 in the unique cellar system of Kőbánya beer brewery. There are five races according to sex and age with the participation of maximum 70 persons per race. The setting is the 3-8 m wide underground corridor with several bends and sometimes absolutely dark

Locations with programs needing significant physical and intellectual skills:
- Covered wind channel –Skyward,
  It has been functioning since 2013 at the northern tip of Csepel Island. It is an absolutely unique service of this kind. There are such services only in eight other towns. You can try interior free fall in 3-60 minutes periods. The flight is preceded by more than an hour long preparation and practice. Only groups of a small number can use it in pre-arranged points of time.
- laser force,
Since 2011 the number of Budapest courses have reached the number. You can fight with laser in special equipment. There are two groups of 3-10 members fighting with each other in 1-2 hours. There are outdoor and indoor opportunities, the latter ones are often in out-of-use factory halls.

Further services needing activity:

- exit games,
  The first such place opened in 2011 and the number increased significantly by 2013. By 2014 there were almost a hundred such places in Budapest. They are mostly in indoor places and you can reach the aim by solving various tasks of wit and skill. Normally there are small number groups (2-6) and the duration is usually around 60 minutes
- trans-dance,
  This service appeared on the palette a few years ago as a result of the increasing interest in spiritual topics. Due to its nature the service is available for smaller groups of maximum 20 persons usually on a once-a-month basis. The aims is to get into a special mental state with the use of hearing and motions without seeing. It can even lead to a better psychological state. The duration of the activity is 1,5 hours.

The above examples prove our hypothesis that the Budapest tourism supply is going through permanent changes and renewals. It is also evident, that these services need both the activity of the participants and the creativity of the service. These points were reinforced by the detailed analysis of two creative activities: the exit rooms and the brutal run, respectively.

**Exit games**

There are several internet collection pages ([www.szabaduloszobak.hu](http://www.szabaduloszobak.hu), [www.exitgames.hu](http://www.exitgames.hu), [https://exitgames.com](https://exitgames.com)) to show offers of exit rooms sorted according to various aspects. These pages that gave the basic data for our research contained 57 different sites in Budapest in 2014.

As a result of a detailed analysis of these we reviewed and structured the games along thematic aspects, duration, allowed/suggested number of participants, and prices. Furthermore we examined the location of the houses in Budapest and the quality of services where there was a possibility to do so.

The 99 games in 7 sites can be structured according to 7 categories (see fig 1). In case of any theme the common feature is that you can get to the opening of the door by solving several special, often extreme tasks.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Theme categories</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Breakout (prison break, getting out of a cellar, a cabin or an ancient Egyptian tomb etc.)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Investigation in pursuit of a (murderer, burglar, thief, lost jewellery, missing person, map, documents or any other kind of secret)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Movies (fairy tales, James Bond, cult movies)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Travelling (roundtrip, jungle themed, outer space, back in time, futuristic)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Adult and horror (age limit)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Education (chemistry, geography, Hungary)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 Thematic of Budapest exit houses, 2014
Source: www.szabaduloszobak.hu, www.exitgames.hu

The task in most cases (28) is the breakout itself from among not everyday circumstances or locations. The site is always created according to the nature of the task and is usually thrilling, narrow, tidy or untidy dark or light-full, noisy or still fitting the game. Investigation is also a frequent topic (19 cases), the investigation of a crime as it is shown on the tables. The tasks to solve is often built around a well-known movie (12 cases) or around a motif of travel (13 cases). There are also age limit topics in not more than 0.5% cases (6). Education and playful teaching is the aim of games only in 3% of the cases.

The time given for the tasks is 60 minutes in most of the cases, but there are different durations as well. In some cases two games may link which means you can get from one game space directly to the other. In such cases the duration is doubled of course. When the tasks need more time to solve programs may be 80 or 90 minutes long.

Because of the usually small sizes of the rooms and interiors the number of participants is usually 2-6 persons. It is possible to accept a bigger number of people if visitors can play simultaneously in several rooms. In such cases 24-30 people can visit the place with different groups playing in the rooms parallel. The examined services show a homogeneous picture in terms of prices as well. In most cases HUF 10.000-12.000/2-6 persons is the average, but there are all kinds of discounts up to 20-50% on coupon or student card basis, or if the puzzle of the game is successfully solved. To get a discount coupon for another game is also characteristic. After reviewing the examined supply we can say the lowest price is HUF 7500/2-6 person groups whereas the highest price is HUF 14.900/2-6 persons group. In some cases the price is defined on a per person basis, and is usually around HUF 3000/person. In comparison with the group tickets in case of maximum number of persons this price category is the highest.
An important characteristic from the point of view of tourism is that sometimes these services are available in English (26). An even higher per cent of services (50%) advertise their exit rooms in English on their web pages. There are at the same time locations where the games can only be played in Hungarian since the descriptions, the texts of the tasks, the evaluation of the situations and all the information cards are in Hungarian.

In this type of service another innovation has appeared lately called second generation exit games (urban exit). There is usually some kind of investigation task with role play included and the game itself is not restricted to a room interior, but the streets and the surrounding district are also involved.

Services seem to have been designed for very definite target groups such as young people, families with small children (family friendly locations with fairy tale thematic) and school groups (educational games). Some exit rooms are operated by traditional providers like Gellért Szálló (Hotel Gellért) and Király Fűrđő (King’s Spa) and several ruin pubs. There are games of different difficulty levels available.

Our research showed evidently an evaluative process having started to appear although the phenomena of exit games are absolutely new. This is not only the interest of the supplier but can also be explained by the wide supply and the growing interest. Among the places we studied there are only 13 where visitors can evaluate the games if they wish on a 5 scale Likert-scale visitors can assess factors in theme-creativity-difficulty’. Votes range from a few up to more than a hundred showing that evaluation process has started but it is not enough to draw consequences.

As an illustration we can say the following: in case of 13 games the lowest values were game/theme 4.42, creativity 4.33, and difficulty 3.37. As a result of the fast growing supply providers are keen on making themselves characteristically different from one another by underlining special features and opportunities. Among the mottos on the TripAdvisor to call attention you can find ’The most difficult game - only a 25% of the groups could break out’ ’it can be played in English’ the best price/value ratio service’, ’also for school classes’ ’with a chocolate fondue party’ ’with a pizza party’ ’birthday with fireworks’ ’the aim is to get in’. To raise interest and continuous innovation have become basic demands in case of these services.

Burger King Brutal Run Budapest 1.0

Among the numerous running races ’Brutal run’ was a real novelty in summer 2014. The extreme obstacle race introduced new elements into this service. The aim was to get the urban population to move and to make running popular while giving excellent programs for tourists staying in Budapest. It can be regarded as an element of creative supply because unusual obstacles needed a creative
attitude both from the side of the provider and of the participant. The 4.5 km long race course had 31 obstacles including stadium stairs, foam tunnel, slide, bus-running, container with icy water, rubber mountain, slalom, rope-wall, water course, ditch, bench jump, barrier-climb, dark corridor, etc. The obstacles were created so that they should be entertaining, urban-like and possible to perform. Out of the more than 1500 participants of the first Budapest race 2% were foreigners (Slovenians, Slovaks, Ukrainians, Austrians, Americans, and Turkish) and almost 50% came from the (Hungarian) country. These latter two categories include the tourists. The races were started in 100 people groups in every half an hour. The ratio of males and females was 3:2 and their average age was 30+. 185 people registered from some sports club (12%), the remaining people chose the event as leisure time activity.

Registration fee ranged from HUF 5,000 to HUF 14,000 depending on type and period. Discount was given to students and pensioners. Chip timing, refreshments, goal package and medical service if needed were included in the registration fee which was adapted to the usual tariff of mass sport events. Due to its nature running races depend highly on weather. If the event is organized in the summer high season of tourism nice weather can be expected. Already after the registration to the first event international presence can be examined both among the competitors and among the fans (irrespective of the weather). Organizers of sports events – our researches proved – look for novelties attracting interest increasing creative and active touristic elements in Budapest.

**Creative elements in terms of space and time**

To analyse the location of creative touristic supply – above all the absolutely new elements – was a part of the research. Locations of this category are indicated on the map below (Picture 1).

The territory separated on the map with a thick black line is the historical city centre of Budapest with all the elements of traditional city tour. It can be well seen that more than half of the exit rooms are located in the same area making two consequences evident. A huge number of cellars and flats out of use in the city centre can become utilized in this way whereas it is also visible that the new services were deliberately located in the area easily approachable for tourists. It should also be underlined that many of these sites are outside the central zone, thus including territories into tourism supply areas.

Exit rooms do not produce much noise, so they do not disturb local residents. The same is not true for shooting ranges (SR) a skywards (SW) which are built into industrial sites not in use for a longer time. Laser force sites (X) and extreme obstacle competitions (BR) underworld bicycle races (UR) are located outside the traditional tourist areas. These services actually link locations into the blood circulation of tourism totally out of use before. Kőbánya beer brewery
The cellar system for example has already provided special tours and events during the past years producing unique experiences. Registration and booking data show tourists seeking novelty are not frightened by the distance from the centre. The location itself is a significant element of getting to know local people and gaining new experiences. During the way to the site the visitor can get more information about the city and can get ready for the task to do.

As far as time factors are regarded we can claim these services are available throughout the year which means they broaden non-seasonal tourism supplies. During the summer peak season the opening hours are even longer because of a higher number of tourists. Running and bicycle races are usually organized in August. The organization of the next race starts already during the previous one. Another addition to time dimension is, that registration is needed in advance because the number of participants is limited. Summer season 2015 will give us further information in terms of time-dimension.

**Summary**

The goal of our research was to examine the elements of creative tourism possibilities in Budapest. The first step was to reveal whether such a wing of tourism existed at all. Unlike other researches of the field of creative tourism we did not focus on opportunities given by creative industries but we examined whether Budapest tourism supply provides creative services for tourists. There
were two examined cases: when the creativity of the provider is realised in the supply and ones that need creativity from the tourists. Since in city tourism there is a definite demand toward activity supply we looked for elements that fulfil expectations both of activity and creativity. The positive result of our research is that we found a wide range of such services. The examined services were structured into categories to make a framework for further researches. In this present study we focused on opportunities that proved absolutely new without any antecedent such as exit rooms and brutal running. Exit house show a huge increase both in terms of number and thematic. As far as Brutal run is concerned it is a novelty because of its extreme obstacle race course.

Detailed analysis showed that Budapest does have an intensive creative supply permanently increasing adding much to the traditional services of the city. We could also demonstrate that besides traditional locations these places bring new sites into the blood circulation of tourism broadening the territory of services. The above findings summarize the first part of our research focusing on Budapest creative tourism. These results are very telling and raise further questions.

Further researches will focus on whether the broadening of creative tourism supply will result in a higher number of visitors, and, whether a bigger amount of these opportunities make Budapest more creative i.e. whether in comparison to other cities any element will be especially characteristic.

**Literature**

Raymond, C. 2003. Case study - creative tourism New Zealand: Creative tourism New Zealand and Australia council for the arts.
UNESCO 2014. Creative Cities Network,
Sport mega events in metropolitan areas. Curse or blessing for tourism development? Example of EURO 2012 in Poland

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The article assesses the influence of EURO 2012 (European football championships) on tourism development in Poland. Using statistical data and research studies on the topic, it locates the analysis on the background of international research and uses comparison of EURO 2012 four host destinations with two non-host destinations and national average. The analysis presented leads to the conclusion that EURO 2012 - against sport boosters’ opinions - did not contribute to various aspects of tourism development. Results were often better in non-host destinations in Poland.

Introduction

Sports mega events understood as hallmark events or 'an international event that attracts visitors from around the world and has the potential for high-profile international media coverage' (Philips 2012: 6) are often presented as events having spectacularly wide and differentiated positive impact on city (region, country) development (see: Borowski 2010). In short, the event in proponents' opinions was to radically change the situation of the country, region and place of the event in every aspect of its functioning (Ibidem; Malfas et al. 2004). Before we analyze the alleged benefits in the tourist sector, let us introduce the mega events, aims and hypotheses of this research, methods and sources of information used.

There are two basic types of mega events: sports mega events (Olympic Games; football world and particularly European continental championships and rarely, less often mentioned and analyzed in international scientific papers, rugby championships) and global expositions (EXPO). All of them are organized on a regular basis in different locations. What they share in common are assumptions on possibility to gain benefits in economic sphere (see: UNDESA 2012, Bor-

1De facto it was organized in Poland and Ukraine. Due to shortage of Ukrainian data this article is limited exclusively to Poland. According to UEFA (2013) financial report its income from EURO 2012 has reached euro 1,4 bn.
owski 2010), social (social ties strengthening, mobilizing) (Pl2012 2007), promotional (positive image change and increase in numbers of visitors attracted) (Borowski 2010), infrastructure development and urban regeneration (Ibidem; Nicolau 2012). This is the official stance presented by stakeholders. Needless to say, in order to convince the readers that it was a very fruitful event making each following event sensible, the stakeholders would uphold this opinion after each time. Recent years have shown that the majority of economists do not accept the idea of economic benefits and critically analyze the costs and benefits (Coates, Humphreys 2008; Whaples 2009; Crompton 1995; Baade 1996; Matheson 2006).

The aforementioned aspects of the impact were mostly individually researched in recent decades. When looking at the content of peer reviewed international development or sport journals it can be said that generally most researchers doubt any benefits, particularly economic ones. Many stress the fact that most – if not all – economic benefits are nothing but illusions, as they are strongly overestimated and do not take into account the long term public costs (infrastructure, etc) (Crompton 1995; Kozak 2014). As Flyvbjerg and Stewart (2012) say the costs of Olympic Games are always significantly overrun. Bramwell in his classic article (1997) sees the main weakness of the mega event planning in lack of wide and long term strategic vision.

There is no increase in the number of tourists as a result of the event. What is more, 'regular' tourists, are crowded out by less affluent sport fans, who come exclusively to enjoy the sport event. Therefore, hopes to get additional income from additional tourists is nothing but an illusion due to two phenomena: crowding out of regular tourists and taking free time during the event by city inhabitants willing to escape the noise and disorder during the event (Lee, Taylor 2005; UNWTO 2014 tourist highlights; Baade, Matheson 2004; ETOA 2006; Owen 2005, Preuss 2004; Bramwell 1997). Temporary increase of prices (typical in the period of event\(^2\); Porter 1999) works only in case of some top sponsor businesses. The main problem is not the numbers of people coming in or out but the qualitative change (Owen 2005). The growing costs of mega events (Olympic Games in Beijing and Sochi estimated at least 50 billion USD) make the chances for economic gains next to impossible (Ames 2008; Upegui 2008). In particular less developed countries risk debt as in most cases they suffer from serious shortages in terms of infrastructure, which often after the event meets no or little demand (mostly sport infrastructure) (Baade, Matheson 2004). But even in those better developed countries, it may lead to long term indebtedness (Matheson

\(^2\)When the author exactly a year before the EURO 2012 checked the costs of a one weekend night in a 5 star hotel room in Warsaw Sheraton, in 2011 it was 210 PLN (ca 53 euro), while when tried to book for opening weekend of the EURO 2012 it was 1065 PLN (ca 247,3 euro; almost 5 times higher). The average exchange rate of euro in June 2011 was 3.9695 PLN and in June 2012 it was 4,3072 PLN (NBP 2014a).
Economic costs and traffic burden are among widely understood negative impacts (Kim et al. 2015). The other comments relate to sport mega events, but probably it would not be much different (but not as dramatic) also in case of EXPOs. As for the social aspect, most elements are considered phantasmagorical: there is no social ties strengthening (see Czapiński, Panek 2013), mobilization is limited and temporary (Horne, Manzenreiter 2006) additionally reduced by numerous displacements of local residents.\(^3\) What is more, an increasing number of studies suggest terror threats and increasing crime as phenomena accompanying mega events and increasing security costs (see Kim et al. 2015; Konstantaki, Wickens 2010). The increase of the costs of housing and building plots unavoidably leads to displacement and gentrification accompanying the mega events (see Clarke 2013). In case of Seoul (World Cup of 2002) and Beijing (Olympic Games of 2008) the number of people displaced is counted in hundreds of thousands (Kozak 2014).

Similarly critical are also numerous studies on promotional aspects: first of all there is no free marketing or just information about the country in international media and what is worse, all non-sport information were filtered by journalists stereotypes (Rivenburgh 2004) and in many cases had no impact on place image (Zhang, Zhao 2009).\(^4\) Often awareness of the name is taken for knowledge about it (see Preuss 2004), which is not the same. The same applies to counting of TV spectators: switching TV on, is not the same as watching the broadcast and commercials. A change of image was not noted. A survey carried out in 2013 by Polish Tourism Organization among incoming tourists, does not even mention EURO 2012 as having any impact on travel decision (POT 2013). Finally, infrastructural development and urban regeneration did not bring expected benefits in most cases, as investments resulted in high maintenance costs (in particular of one time needed sport and related infrastructure; Kozak 2014) and in most cases urban regeneration and local infrastructure in the vicinity of stadiums was the first to be cut off on the list (Gratton, Henry 2001).

\(^3\)Even in the case of the Olympic Games in London 2012 several hundreds of East Enders were displaced (Clarke 2013). Increasing number of protests against organization of sport mega events (Munich, Oslo, Stockholm, Cracow, Brazil) confirm that mega events lead rather to conflicts than social ties strengthening.

\(^4\)For simple reasons: cost of RTV broadcasting is high enough to reduce the message to information on the events themselves as well as expert discussions and comments in the studio. If local news happen to be on it is rather about riots against the event(Brazil 2014) or sport fans fights (Poland 2012).
As far as the impact on tourism is concerned, it is often stressed before that:

1. Organization of mega events will contribute to the increase of a number of hotels and hotel beds (often high quality ones);
2. Organization of a mega event will bring a bigger than usual number of domestic and foreign tourists to the country and region during its execution;
3. the event will bring more income to destinations and in the long run FDI, as tourists (including potential investors) impressed by the beauty of the country seen on TV and around, perfect organization and hospitality of the receiving community will return as tourists (or investors) or at least will influence decisions of other potential tourists by making them willing to visit the place.

Changes in tourism as part of mega event results are supposed to lead to other economic and social benefits, not always of tourist character: additional income (GDP), mobilizing the population and authorities to speed up the process of constructing technical infrastructure, urban regeneration of the areas surrounding place of the event, changing positively the image of the country and society, mobilizing the people towards the goals of the organization of a mega event thus increasing social capital and bringing fully deserved pride among people.

This paper will concentrate exclusively on effects in tourism area by falsifying the three hypotheses presented above in relation to EURO 2012. This will help achieve main aim: the analysis of influence of sport mega events on tourism development in a given city/region.

Main research methods will be desk research and statistical data analysis (both Polish and UNWTO). This also determines the sources of information. For comparison, not only city/regions hosting matches of EURO 2012 but also national and data for two cities and their regions: Cracow and Małopolskie region (known destination) and Łódź and Łódzkie region (less frequently visited destination). One may assume that given hypothesis shall be falsified when the figures for EURO regions/cities in terms of dynamics of hotels, beds, tourists and FDI are not higher than in non-EURO regions/cities. NUTS 3 regions in cities discussed cover both sub region (NUTS 3) and county (NUTS 4).

The influence of EURO 2012 on hotel investment in Poland

The answer to the basic question about the benefits most often promised by international organization and its national equivalent subsidiary company will be sought in official statistics. While in special report (Borowski 2010) benefits in the form of large increase of hotel investments was announced as an obvious result of mega event organization. The available figures do not support the thesis of that report (see table 1).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Territorial unit/year</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>Change 2013/2010, %</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>3223</td>
<td>3285</td>
<td>3414</td>
<td>3485</td>
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<tr>
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<td>259</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>Warsaw NUTS3 (and county)</td>
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<td>85</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>360</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>53</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
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<td>338</td>
<td>337</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poznań NUTS 3 (and county)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>Pomorskie NUTS 2</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gdańsk, Gdynia, Sopot NUTS 3 (and county)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Non EURO 2014 regions**

| Łódzkie NUTS 2 | 182 | 189 | 211 | 211 | 16 |
| Łódź NUTS 3 (and county) | 35 | 36 | 43 | 46 | 32 |
| Małopolskie NUTS 2 | 394 | 420 | 429 | 428 | 9 |
| Cracow NUTS 3 (and county) | 154 | 154 | 158 | 155 | 1 |

Table 1. Hotels and hotel type establishments (motels, pensions and similar) open all year round, 2010-2013. Source: GUS (CSO), BDL website (accessed 10.01.2015). Increase more dynamic than national average marked in bold.

The data do not confirm the positive impact of EURO 2012 on hotel investment in host localities. Among the cities hosting EURO matches only Poznań and the Tricity have shown a growth in the number of establishments bigger than the national average in the period of 2010-2013. The most dynamic increase has been observed in the city of Łódź (32%), which did not host EURO 2012. It should be noted that in some host-cities immediately after EUR2012 the number of hotel type establishments went down (in Wrocław by 4 units, Tricity by 1 unit). A similar phenomenon could also be noted in Cracow (by 3 units), which did not host EURO 2012. Therefore, to say that no impact could be observed is justified.

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5Agglomeration of Gdańsk, Gdynia and Sopot.
The data of the BDL GUS\(^6\) clearly show that there was a bit higher increase of beds number in hotel type establishments than the increase in the number of establishments (on average by 14% in Poland in the years 2010-2013; but this was not case in every city hosting the event (9% in Warsaw, 5% in Poznań, 13% in Wrocław and 23% in Tricity) or outside. The highest increase of number of beds was noted in Łódź (53%), but in well established tourist destination of Cracow only 6% (GUS BDL). Thus, no regular pattern can be observed.

**The impact of EURO 2012 on the number of tourists visiting Poland and selected regions and cities (+C = with their counties)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Territorial unit/year</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>Change 2013/2010, %</th>
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<td>Poland</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mazowieckie NUTS 2</td>
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<td>1933645</td>
<td>2194446</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warsaw NUTS3 (+C)</td>
<td>1362189</td>
<td>1413183</td>
<td>1338439</td>
<td>1498581</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dolnośląskie NUTS 2</td>
<td>970034</td>
<td>1100326</td>
<td>1142486</td>
<td>1176537</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrocław NUTS 3 + C</td>
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<td>435943</td>
<td>439702</td>
<td>462706</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>979161</td>
<td>1046051</td>
<td>967765</td>
<td>993502</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poznań NUTS 3 + C</td>
<td>303503</td>
<td>315904</td>
<td>298688</td>
<td>324287</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomorskie NUTS 2</td>
<td>735273</td>
<td>787575</td>
<td>864270</td>
<td>912873</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gdańsk, Gdynia, Sopot NUTS 3 (+C)</td>
<td>355935</td>
<td>383536</td>
<td>429760</td>
<td>468646</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non EURO 2014 regions and cities</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>Change 2013/2010, %</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>Łódzkie NUTS 2</td>
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<td>703576</td>
<td>745312</td>
<td>774542</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Łódź NUTS 3 (+ C)</td>
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<td>247278</td>
<td>282185</td>
<td>317862</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Małopolskie NUTS 2</td>
<td>1175108</td>
<td>1393092</td>
<td>1480360</td>
<td>1504827</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cracow NUTS 3 (+C)</td>
<td>580283</td>
<td>671737</td>
<td>696339</td>
<td>724702</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Number of domestic tourists sleeping in hotels and similar establishments, 2010-2013 Source: GUS (CSO) BDL website (accessed 10.01.2015). Increase more dynamic than national average marked in bold.

\(^6\)GUS meaning CSO (central statistical office), BDL – local data bank.
The data provided in table 2 show that the highest level of increased number of residents (Polish citizens) may be noted in regions and cities that were not hosting EURO 2012. Only two out of four regions and their capitals hosting EURO 2012 presented a dynamic increase of a number of tourists sleeping in hotels and hotel type establishments (Dolnośląskie with Wrocław and Pomorskie with the Tricity). In two other host regions and their capitals the number of resident tourists increased less than Poland’s average.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Territorial unit/year</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>Change 2013/2010, %</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
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<td>15</td>
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<tr>
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<td>204149</td>
<td>227584</td>
<td>233444</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wielkopolskie NUTS 2</td>
<td>236645</td>
<td>226284</td>
<td>230116</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poznań NUTS 3 and county</td>
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<td>141002</td>
<td>142042</td>
<td>149622</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomorskie NUTS 2</td>
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<td>250361</td>
<td>313767</td>
<td>348112</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gdańsk, Gdynia, Sopot NUTS 3 (and county)</td>
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<td>208049</td>
<td>264084</td>
<td>297233</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>32</td>
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<tr>
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<td>823317</td>
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<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kraków NUTS 3 (and county)</td>
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<td>722695</td>
<td>800111</td>
<td>901032</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Number of foreign tourists sleeping in hotels and hotel type establishments, 2010-2013 Source: GUS (CSO), BDL website (accessed 10.01.2015). Regions and cities that noted over average increase of foreign tourists marked in bold. The destinations that noted a decrease of tourists staying at the hotel type establishments in any of years previous to 2013 are marked in red.
The picture is even clearer when we talk about foreign tourists (table 3). The dynamics in the number of people staying at the hotels and hotel type establishments was over national average only in regions and cities not hosting EURO matches of 2012. It should be noted that in some places number of tourists decreased in comparison to any previous years (Dolnośląskie and Wielkopolskie regions, Poznań and Łódź cities). Again there is no proven impact of EURO 2012.

There is no exact data about the influx of foreign tourists to individual regions and sub-regions of Poland, but a surprising increase of tourism in Pomorskie and Tricity was noted since 2012 as a result of visa-free (close to border) tourism exchange with Kaliningrad area, which in turn resulted in fast growing shopping and later recreational and cultural tourism development. However, according to CSO (GUS 2013) data, the highest number of tourists staying in hotels and hotel type establishments was the highest in August 2012, that is after the event, while in the period of the event (most of June 2012) an increase of the number of tourists was noted exclusively in establishments other than hotels. It only confirms that crowding out more affluent tourists by sport fans was a reality in Poland.

Bad news about income stems from UNWTO statistics. In 2010 in Poland 12.47 million of foreign tourists arrived and spent 9.53 billion USD, in 2011 13.35 million tourists spent 10.68 billion USD, in 2012 14.84 million tourists spent 10.93 billion USD and in 2013 respective figures were estimated at the level of 15.845 million tourists and 10.94 billion USD (UNWTO 2014:8). The same source reports that the highest dynamics of tourism was reported in Central and Eastern Europe, in Georgia, Belarus, Armenia and Kazakhstan (11 to 15%), while Poland reported 7% in 2013 (Ibidem: 7). Conclusion? EURO 2012 had no visible impact on the number of visitors and receipts: certain countries which had nothing to do with EURO 2012 made a bigger progress. A year of a mega event is characterized by crowding out effect mentioned in numerous papers: poor tourists replace 'normal' tourists who decide to avoid problems with spending time in crowded and noisy places of mega sports events.

Economic benefits from a mega event organization are reduced also by the fact that hosting public authorities are in charge of covering all the preparation and maintenance costs (stadiums and other infrastructure investments, training of all the staff involved, including taxi drivers, transport companies staff and volunteers, opening special driving lanes exclusively for the Organization family, security forces training and maintenance, communication technologies etc.). The difference between the Organization and public authorities is that finally all the benefits go to the Organization, while the bulk of costs to the host country taxpayers (maintenance cost of sport infrastructure).
The impact of EURO 2012 on income and FDI in 2010-2013

Due to time taking preparation of official data on national income (GNI or GDP) we shall use only the data for 2010-2012 as available measures. Additionally, remuneration (average wage) will be treated as additional measure of income change.

In general, there are two main sources of potential income for locality: sales of products and services agreed upon and licensed by UEFA (not allowed otherwise) and cost of accommodation and gastronomy. The income from these sources was more than limited, as most attractive places (fan zones, stadiums and vicinity) were monopolized by a few foreign companies (official sponsors) offering pretty expensive beer, simple food and souvenirs. Small local businesses paying for EURO logo and use of the name of EURO or football championships did not have an opportunity to make money out of it and soon started to sell products with the event logo for half the initial price (Burszta et al. 2012).

Against the promises made by the report (Borowski 2010) there is no proof of positive influence of EURO 2012 on income in country and whole regions and cities hosting football matches of championship (table 4).\(^7\) The increase of total GVA or GDP pc in host cities (regions) or non-host cities (regions) is similar\(^8\), thus stemming rather from overall economy development than the mega sports event.

The data for wage level is also in conflict with the promises. Gross wage level per capita (Poland=100) in 2009 and 2012 was in Poznań sub region equal to 110.7 and 110.0%, in the Tricity equal to 117.8 and 115.0% respectively, capital Warsaw sub region 138.8 and 135.6%, Wrocław sub region 107.3 and 104.8%. In other sub regions a relative decrease of wage level per capita was not observed: in Łódź sub region 95.3% and 95.3%, in Cracow sub region 103.3 and 103.6%. Poland’s average gross wage was 3744.38 PLN per capita in 2012 (GUS 2013: 118). Relative worsening of wage level is not exactly what one would expect from a mega event. During the period of the mega event the TM owner (UEFA) benefited from tax exemption on its every activity during the event (Tetlak 2012).

Due to unsuccessful attempts to speed up the process of construction of infrastructure (motorways, railway tracks etc.) hundreds of constructing companies

\(^7\) Another report, published in 2014, instead of presenting the official statistical data proving success is full of emotions, own opinions of the authors and the theses that are not acceptable methodologically, such as suggestion that the increase in a number of tourists visiting Gdańsk is a result of EURO 2012 and not the introduction of visa-free local tourist movement for nearby Kaliningrad area inhabitants (Raport specjalny 2014).

\(^8\) For example the average GVA increase 2011 to 2010 was 8,12 in regions and cities hosting the event, while slightly more (8,50) in other regions and cities analyzed.
went bankrupt. As a result most of transport projects were not finalized until today\(^9\). This is to be considered a cost rather than a benefit from a mega event.

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</table>

Table 4. GVA global and GDP per capita 2010-2012 by selected regions and cities, (GVA in million PLN, GDP in PLN pc).\(^{10}\) Source: GUS (CSO) BDL website (accessed 10.01.2015).

\(^9\) Proponents of EURO announced years ago that before EURO in 2012 motorways will connect every host city with each other and with every border of Poland. It did not happen until today. The railway system is even in worse situation.

\(^{10}\) For euro - PLN exchange rate see footnote 12 and 2.
In the longer run some proponents tried to convince that thanks to organization of a mega event and free (?) promotion of Poland herds of investors would come. In fact investors stopped investing and often fled to other countries (in 2011 FDI were equal to euro 14.8 bn, in 2012 euro 4.7 bn and in 2013 only euro 2.2 bn) (NBP 2014). In 2014 it was expected to increase slightly (FORBES 2014) but there is no hard data available yet (January 2015). Needless to say, it would be as irrational to blame EURO 2012 for this situation as to believe that a mega sports event may have any positive impact on economy.

Conclusions

The aim of this article was to assess the three aspects of the EURO 2012 impact on the number of hotels and hotel beds, the number of tourists and income and foreign direct investments after the event. The two years following the event seem to offer enough data to make an assessment. First, it is clear that against expectations there was no serious increase in number of hotels and beds thanks to EURO 2012. Higher investments often took place in non-EURO cities and regions.

Similarly, the increase in number of tourists cannot be attributed to EURO: again, more tourists often visited non-EURO regions. The increase (in particular in Pomorskie and Warminsko-mazurskie regions and Gdańsk Tricity sub region) can largely be attributed to visa-free tourist arrangement for Kaliningrad area population. According to UNWTO 2014 data, despite the increase of the number of tourists visiting Poland did not bring additional financial receipts. In terms of foreign investment even worse results were visible. Needless to say, the level of investments (FDI) has nothing to do with sport tourism, and the decrease in capital inflow is only an example of that. Comparing the data between EURO regions/cities and non-EURO regions/cities leaves no doubt that EURO did not result in the development of various aspects of tourism.

To sum up, the hypotheses presented and researched in this article were falsified. There is no visible difference between EURO and non-EURO cities/regions. Like in many other places all over the world, significant public involvement in mega events (mostly covering the costs of infrastructure and secure events), makes it possible for the Organization (FIFA, UEFA, Olympic Committee) to make significant money with little risk on its side. The sooner the private sector (more active in more developed countries) takes major responsibility for the event preparation and execution, the better.

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Czapinski, J., Panek, T., 2013, Diagnoza społeczna 2013, Rada Monitoringu Społecznego, Warszawa
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The main objective of this chapter is the analysis of food markets and its recent shift towards becoming a modern tourist resource, due to the boom in cultural tourism modality (Keller, 2005). These are markets located at the tourist center of the city and are set in attractive for different audiences, apart from traditional ones. This happens in the cases of La Boqueria, and Santa Caterina, in Barcelona, or San Antón, San Miguel and San Fernando, in Madrid. These food markets have become the new tourist and identity exponent of the cities that project their attractive image to the visitor. Due to the continuous quantitative growth of tourism, cities have undergone important qualitative changes in their bid to adapt to new tastes and demands of visitors. This new functionality of food markets impacts their traditional use by both, its merchants and residents as well as its ‘users of urban spaces’. We focus our attention on the mix of tourism with local, a sort of sustainable approach, in order to establish a classification of food markets in the center of the tourist cities.

Tourist markets as new attractions to the historical centers of the city

Introduction

In a globalized world, where homogenization is the pattern of daily life, what tourists seek are new experiences, something unusual, different, unique, which is found only in that particular place. The monuments, museums, the idiosyncrasies of the people, and the food markets are examples of what these new consumers are seeking, since they offer authenticity and local contacts. In this sense, food markets are one of the resources promoted where local and tourist shake hands, at least theoretically.

Tourists bother some traders and benefit others. Traders live mainly from their neighbors and families, but the arrival of tourists allows them to increase income
and improve the image of these markets. It also allows renovating the building and also opens the market in the evenings or even weekends, and introduces them as ‘mandatory’ places to visit.

Furthermore, food markets are exceptional spaces filled with history and culture of a territory, tastes and eating habits of their inhabitants. They are part of the rich heritage of a city. Many of them are located downtown, and have historical past, architectural beauty, etc. Therefore, they can be a great resource.

The present and potential success and attractiveness of food markets is due to three aspects (Casares, 2003, p. 34-37): the proximity as economic and sociological factors, the revitalization of the town and the environment, and the quality of groceries and goods. Proximity, having a nearby store where to buy quality products and have home treatment, explains the importance of these places. The city centers or neighborhood centers emerge around the food markets, as they are a guarantee of quality. Quality of service and product to the consumer satisfaction and linked more closely to the demands of the new middle and upper social classes (gentrification the city center). Food markets tend to be characterized as having a large assortment and quality. And this reliability, experience and credibility of the traditional food markets shape the prestigious image of these trade spaces. All this is completed with the presentation and attraction of the establishment, both the architectural building that houses it as the posts themselves and the display of products.

The city then sees itself as being ‘visited’, as much discovered by foreign visitors as by its own residents. When cultural tourism prevails, it becomes ever more difficult to distinguish between ‘visitors’ spaces and spaces for ‘locals’, given that leisure, entertainment and cultural sectors are thought to be just as crucial for local people as for foreign visitors. Moreover, when local residents aren’t travelling themselves, they also involve in similar activities as the tourists: going out to eat, strolling the streets, wandering along the sea-front, visiting museums…In this way, local residents behave more and more like tourists in their own city (Lloyd, 2000, p.7). This is possible as the boundaries between tourists and local residents and between work and leisure are eroded in a fluid society (Bauman, 2003). It leads to different scholars to argue new paradigmatic changes: Touraine, 2005; Castells, 2005; Delgado, 2007; Richards, 2007; Urry, 2008; Lloyd & Nichols, 2010. Therefore, as Thrane (2000) concluded, we agree that consumption of cultural tourism is an extension of everyday life, the same consumption that tourists do at their home city, as well as if they were cosmopolitan natives. Thus, the main duality between residents and tourists disappears. However the risk of gentrification is still present.

Thus, this evolution involves the disappearance of the tourist and resident duality and the settings of a vast range of “urban users”, where tourism really keeps integrated into the city. They are integrated due to cities becoming
“experimental places’ (Barrado, 2010), where the local experience is needed. Furthermore, it is necessary to add a new aspect into this cultural tourism experience. As Richards goes back over (2007, p.2) in the past, cultural tourism was largely associated with high culture and with ‘cultured’ people. Today, cultural tourism includes many popular cultural attractions…and the ‘everyday life’ of ‘local’ communities. The resources associated with cultural tourism have expanded from the largely fixed, tangible heritage of the past toward the mobile, intangible products of contemporary culture. Indeed, the aspect of ‘local’ is automatically linked to ‘authentic’ which has been a key element for the tourism industry (Taylor, 2001, p. 7). This involves another new paradigm: a change from going somewhere to see something to going somewhere to do something. Consequently, tourism policies needed take into account the economic stakeholders as well as the ‘host society’ (Ávila & Barrado, 2005, p. 30-31).

In this scenario, food markets become one of the resources and exponents of the brand new city. That is, spaces recognized for their ability to attract new experiences, where tourists can mix with the local population and their daily lives. That is the main attraction for new tourists.

**The city brand**

Traditionally, the city brand has been associated with creating an attractive city for tourists and investors, as a way to leverage resources and improve the local economy (Anderson and Ekman, 2009). Thus, the city aspires to become and remain an attractive place for the (potential) residents, businesses and visitors (van den Berg & Braun, 1999). It is conceived as a ‘consumer-oriented product,’ but includes all tangible aspects (physical structures) and even intangible (culture and experience that a place can offer). In any case, Kavaratzis (2004, p. 70) concludes that the city brand is understood ‘as the means to achieve competitive advantage both to increase local investment and tourism, as well as to achieve development community, reinforcing local identity and identification of citizens with their city and enabled all social forces to prevent social exclusion.’ Bramwell & Rawding (1996, p. 201) predict that: ‘It is necessary to attract tourists, capture the interest of investors and government officials, and building safety, comfort and pride among residents.’

The role of tourism in the process of positioning a city brand is indisputable (Capel, 2007). Those who see the involvement of tourism in the urban landscape as positive speak of ‘smart growth’ as opposed to the ideology of growth ‘all costs’ (Lloyd & Nichols, 2010). Tourism can be built without considering their impact or well balanced and integrated with local development.

Recall that since the 1990s, international urban tourism landscape has changed. Industrial production, in crisis, has turned cities to services and consumption, exploiting its tourism potential, as if they all had ‘tourism opportunities’
(Fainstein, 2005) to position them in the mental and visual map international travelers. Described as ‘entrepreneurial cities’, all these cities (Barrado, 2010) have followed the strategy of improving their competitive position in the spatial distribution of consumption, which involves making flow of the capital through tourism (Harvey, 2001). Accordingly the city presents itself as innovative, exciting, and an attractive place to live, visit and consume.

Consumers (tourists) in this city brand, as stated above, are no longer motivated by culture as objects of cultural consumption and from a contemplative vision but instead become consumers strongly oriented to urban behaviors and aspirations (Amin & Thrift, 2007; Quaglieri & Russo, 2010; Barrado, 2010). Their behaviors are the same as they develop in their own city during their leisure time. This development of the tourism company came to the so-called ‘liquidity’ of contemporary society (Bauman 2003), in which the spatial displacement loses its special character to be inserted into the daily lives of individuals, responding to ‘a compulsion to mobility’ (Urry, 2008) to exploit the opportunities of spatially dispersed consumption. This means that urban spaces are converted to the cosmopolitan consumer class (Fainstein, 2005) anywhere. Thus, consumers can make these cosmopolitan, rapid acclimatization home or building (homing), as suggested by Sheller & Urry (2006, p. 211) in various contexts. Thus, cities attend a spatial reconfiguration; becoming platforms open to global flows of consumer consumption, which has been called by Muñoz (2008), an urbanization process. So cities become like images and elements of success for global consumers trivializing and increasingly resembling each other. We are witnessing a process of theming cityscape or Disneyfication (Zukin, 1995), with environments ‘shiny and protected’ (Hannigan, 1998, p. 7) and time to enjoy the urban offer comfortably without interference unpredictable and undesirable situations.

Hence, the cultural tourist third generation, also called ‘city consumers’ by Maitland (2008, p. 18), are interested mainly in intangible elements of local culture (Richards & Wilson, 2007). One concrete example of these intangible values is local food markets. In Barcelona and Madrid we find several food markets that allow us to establish a typology and assess their impact on the city. It can be seen in traditional, neighborhood markets, even the most touristified; from the most modern to more traditional; of the most genuine and authentic to artificial. However, in many of them we find the coexistence of tourists and locals in a space where ones can indulge and share experiences with locals, and where locals can make their traditional shopping at a reasonable price and with a notorious variety and quality. This desirable and attractive trend could end disappearing given the current dynamics.
Analysis and types of markets in Madrid and Barcelona: from traditional markets to ‘touristified’ markets

Barcelona and Madrid are one of the few cities in the world that have a network of markets in every neighborhood.

Historically, there have been differences in the treatment of commercial spaces between Madrid and Barcelona. In Barcelona the importance of purchases in the markets over the large stores remained; it has also been a bet of local government, through the Municipal Institute of Barcelona Markets (IMMB). It is important to recall that since the Middle Ages, municipalities have exercised responsibility for supply and ensure the arrival and distribution of the most basic food to the town. In Barcelona (and other cities), this fact configured physical spaces: the municipal markets, first, as outdoor enclosures; then with covered structures. As a result, nowadays Barcelona has a network of thirty-nine municipal markets around the several neighborhoods of the city. And, since the early 1990s, the City has promoted a policy of commercial modernization of these markets in order to adapt them to the new challenges of the future: that is changes into the consumption habits, spent leisure time, formulas of social relations, introduction of new technologies. In this sense, in December 2005 it set up the Municipal Institute of Barcelona Markets (IMMB), designated as an autonomous body for the direct management and administration of municipal markets under the tutelage of Barcelona City Council regarding approval of the ordinances, position appointments, creation or deletion of markets and approval of major works. Thus, the performance of IMMB focuses on three areas: improving infrastructure and services update commercial offerings and incorporate trade promotion policies.

In Madrid, something similar happens, although there exist, a primacy of supermarket and shopping centers over the food markets. This has affected the processes that follow. Trade liberalization schedules (Law 2004) have conditioned the current restructuring crisis of trade. In Madrid, the most trade large area is located in the periphery in the same family-type population. In turn, retail is located mostly in the city center, specialized as a consumer center. Regarding food markets noteworthy they are distributed around different districts of Madrid. From 2003, the Madrid City Council implemented a Plan for the Innovation and Transformation of Municipal Markets. This establishes an investment for each of them: to improve their facilities, standardize their presentation, incorporate medium-sized malls, enhance car park, promotional website, etc.
In summary, both market models of Barcelona and Madrid are part of the desire to modernize and redo markets and boost changes to convert municipal markets into more competitive spaces, with modern facilities and services tailored to the demands of the citizenship (home delivery, online shopping, customer car park, Wi-Fi, self-service areas, leisure activities, workshops and educational programs, and specialized supply and fresh goods) and also tourism users.

In both cases, the markets that survive on a healthy way are located in the center of or surrounding areas with tourism potential demand, and thus, in some cases, they have been converted into gourmet markets or other types where one can eat and enjoy while meet or participate in a show of cultural and gastronomic character (Food Halls or Show-cooking places).

In the case of central Madrid, we have San Miguel and San Antón markets, as well as San Fernando and Anton Martin, La Cebada, Los Mostenses and Barceló. And finally, we have other markets with neighborhood location and market characteristics more traditional than these earlier mentioned. Only those located in the center seem to survive or either being converted because the higher current interest in such spaces. In the case of Barcelona, the Boqueria market, Santa Caterina, La Barceloneta, El Mercat de la Princesa, and Sant Antoni, present a similar situation but with peculiarities. Barcelona has pampered the traditional commerce, and thus food markets, to the detriment of medium and large shopping centers. Therefore the structural frame is different. However, touristification also hits the city and downtown markets and opens new approaches of development for markets undergoing crisis.

From the analysis of downtown or tourist areas markets, we can establish a typology of these that allow us to compare these two cities in a common
framework. The variables that have defined to establish the typology are, among others:

- Website availability, social media attendance, promotional videos (languages?)
- Kind of products (innovative, traditional, international goods)
- Other services: restaurants, bars, malls, car park, free Wi-Fi, delivery at home
- Timetable (during the week, weekend)
- Prices (expensive or popular)
- Cultural activities (concerts and music events, etc.)
- Building: restored, modern, artistic, historic, etc.
- Adapted to disabled people.

According to these variables we can establish the following types of food markets located in the historic and tourist center of Madrid and Barcelona:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>MARKETS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Redesigned Markets as <strong>touristic resource</strong> and to gentries.</td>
<td>San Miguel; S A ó (d i d); La Princesa (Barcelona)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Touristified Markets</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Food Markets with tourist attraction. <strong>Sustainable Markets</strong></td>
<td>La Boquería; Santa Caterina (Barcelona); <strong>San Fernando (Madrid)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Traditional Food Markets in <strong>changing process and uncertain future</strong></td>
<td>A ó i; B c ló; L s Mostenses; La Cebada (Madrid); La Barceloneta; Sant Antoni (Barcelona)</td>
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*Source: own elaboration from the analysis of variables.*

1. **Redesigned Markets as touristic resource and to gentries: Touristified Markets**

There are markets that have been designed for tourism purposes. These are markets that have been remodeled and restructured according to the purest tourist demand. This applies to the central markets of San Miguel and San Anton in Madrid, and La Princesa in Barcelona. San Miguel is not on the list of municipal markets due to its private management. It is similar in the case of La Princesa. So, they are the new cathedrals and monuments in cities and receive lots of visits, both for tourists and locals. They are called ‘Food Halls’.

The San Miguel market was opened after its refurbishment in 2009, by a private group and during the economic crisis. It is a clearly tourist resource. It is publicized in most guidebooks as a tourist highlight, as well as on its website and promotional videos. The building is considered of cultural interest. It mainly offers food and varied and representative Spanish gastronomy (posts of oysters, cheeses, tapas, sweets, wines, champagne, ham, etc.) and tourists enjoy them in common areas with tables and chairs; it has prices above average and expanded
opening hours (10-24 am/2pm). It is often enlivened by musical performances. Its audience is predominantly tourists, both domestic and international, but nevertheless, also attracts the population of the metropolitan area; it does not attract traditional local neighborhood population, people of lower socioeconomic status, but rather these newcomers or gentries that are gradually settling into the center. It sells the image of a meeting space for local and tourist population, but locals do rather appear in this space. Therefore, it is not a sustainable and authentic market, but adapted to tourists, for purely tourism.

Next to San Miguel Market, and located in the gentrified district of Chueca, is the market of San Antón, less touristic and more local. Remodeled and opened two years later than the prior, in 2011. This market has few food stalls of medium level status, nontraditional products, but a certain level of quality; it also has a medium-sized mall on the ground floor, and offers a selection of tapas bars and a restaurant with terrace for middle classes as well as an exhibition hall. It also has an expanded schedule (until 24 or 1:30 am).

In Barcelona, the Princesa Market, located in the gentrified neighborhood of Born, recently (2013) opened from a historical palace of the fourteenth century restored with modern atmosphere and design into Lifestyle art. As theirs counterparts in Madrid, San Antón and San Miguel, also offers food (oysters, sushi, wines, whitewater, salads, etc.) and one can choose according to his/her own taste and enjoys in common tables with other visitors. Its opening hours are extended until 24 / 24.30 hours. Its website provides a modern, cosmopolitan, dynamic and multicultural image, giving a sensation of Mediterranean lifestyle, as it stated in the latest Strategic Barcelona Tourism Plan 2015 (Crespi & Dominguez, 2013).

2. Food Markets with tourist attraction. Sustainable Markets

This second type includes the food markets that attract traditional public as well as tourists. So despite being traditional style, they are interesting to tourists and therefore promoted in tourist guides. This is the case of markets in Barcelona (La Boqueria, Santa Caterina and La Barceloneta) and only one case in Madrid. They are spaces in which coexists the traditional with the modern in a particular tension. They are attractive for tourism but retain their traditional and old customers in a balanced game that lets them be as attractive as sustainable.

In essence, the value of La Boqueria comes from its antiquity (place of location in the twelfth century and current construction of the building in the nineteenth century). Located in the Rambla, has been remodeled in 2000, and currently considered a world leader with numerous awards. It has two hundred and fifty stalls that mix traditional products with delicatessen ones. There are more and more trade posts run by immigrants. At different websites, tourist guides, etc. La Boqueria is designated as an attraction not to be missed, when visiting the city. There are plenty of stalls that target new customers: fresh juices, fruit cut into...
pieces, ready meals, sweets, candies and chocolates, etc., products that a tourist can easily consume during his/her visit. Furthermore, we can find the traditional stalls of meat, fish and other products of recognized quality. La Boqueria also plans cooking classes for children and adults, and organizes gastronomic events. The schedule is also expanded (up to 21 hours), Monday to Saturday. Also open on Monday, when many of the traditional establishments are closed, and in fact, this day has become the third best day in terms of sales, behind Friday and Saturday. The image projected from its website is colorful, cheerful, neat, functional, and ready to provide the consumer with all kinds of products, seeking sustainability according to the Strategic Plan of Tourism of the City 2015 (Crespi & Dominguez, 2013).

Nearby, there is the Santa Caterina Market, the second oldest in the town (1848), located in the center of the Ciutat Vella and remodeled in 2005. Its current rehabilitation and reform (by Enric Miralles and Benedetta Tagliabues) with its emblematic and multicolored mosaics cover (related to Gaudi architecture) has transformed the market into a tourist icon, attracting not only new customers but also tourists. However, the stalls do not show still much this shift paradigm, although there are greengrocers who seized the opportunity and have geared their business towards the visiting public, selling fruit juices and cut fruit packaging. It also features a restaurant, Oleoteca, and 60 local fresh food stalls. It is also a space committed to the selective recycling. Their schedules are up to 20:30 h. and also open Monday mornings. Its website clearly aims to provide a modern, close and committed to the client image (with advice on how to prepare and cook different meals).

In Madrid, San Fernando in Embajadores, a popular neighborhood where gentrification has been slowly progressing. It is a market center that has been partially remodeled. It features a health center that attracts local people. It has been reactivated by local initiative (La Tabacalera and 15M movement) and offers alternative tastes (food bio, fair trade, oil, wines, cheeses, craft beer, artisan breads, Japanese food, Greek, etc.) with moderated prices. It combines traditional public and tourists and visitors seeking more authenticity, which makes it a more sustainable than previous markets. The schedule is much restricted (business hours to 20 hours or 17 hours), but open on Saturdays and on Sundays. However does not seem in the mood of the markets placed in overcrowded tourist circuits of Madrid. Coming soon will open a great restaurant on its premises.

3. Traditional Food Markets in changing process and uncertain future

Finally, there are the markets that have not experienced the change so radically and are in a clear process of transformation. So these are more traditional markets but with signs of initiating change, either by incorporation of spaces / cultural designs like La Cebada; by new stalls according to tourist tastes like Los
Mostenses by reorganizing or investment by private agents (Tribal); comprehensive renovation and modernization as Barceló or Sant Antoni, etc. These markets are characterized by maintaining their traditional character, offering quality products, providing local residents and neighbors. Remodeling and modernization basically aim to update the facilities, according to tourism strategic plans, related to ordering, enhancement and promotion of historic urban centers. But their use and service for the community remains. The immediate future will define their career on the line of tourism or not. In the case of Madrid, Barceló and San Antón markets have been demolished and later rebuilt. La Barceloneta (in Barcelona) Mostenses and La Cebada (both in Madrid) have been rehabilitated with little investment. Sant Antoni in Barcelona is currently being remodeled.

*Anton Martin* market is one of the traditional ones in Madrid. It has a dance school at the top, and the market supply is distributed between traditional stalls of meat, vegetables, fish, etc. alongside some innovators like Japanese food, organic food, etc. The schedule is slightly expanded (from 9-21 hours) and does not open on weekends except of Saturday mornings. It organizes weekly activities such as craft fairs, handmade products, etc. The audience is a mix between traditional middle classes and new sectors as tourists. So we can find some advertisements in English. This is a market that is located in the center and has the potential of touristification but keeps its traditional public yet.

*Barceló* market in Madrid was officially opened in June-September 2014. It has a sports area, and a terrace. Its composition is in line with traditional food markets. *Mostenses* is a market characterized by the mix: exotic, international and cosmopolitan air. There is various stalls lead by immigrants of different countries of the downtown area of the city. It is an affordable and popular market with exotic restaurants at low prices. It is planned remodeling by Triball¹.

*La Cebada* market is currently in a critical situation and has many empty stalls. In 2009 its demolition was ordered but only one part was demolished. In this market the neighbors have taken up the reins from 2011 and constituted as a meeting and activities space (parties, urban garden, sports area, etc.) and lead a strong anti-speculative movement and defense the identity and the traditional market.

In the case of Barcelona, two examples of this category of traditional markets are highlighted in the nearby of Ciutat Vella: Barceloneta and Sant Antoni. *Barceloneta* is located in a tourist enclave because of the proximity to the beach.

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¹*Triball is a business association of merchants that has emerged in the neighbourhood, establish good relationships with the municipality and invest in property in the neighbourhood. Even the neighbourhood is naming Triball.*
Founded in 1884 and experienced the last structural reform in 2007. It has solar panels that provide it electricity and a large numbers of fish stalls, and also a medium-sized supermarket and several upscale restaurants included in the Michelin guide. Its website says its functional character and willingness to provide maximum information to their local customers, especially on sustainability.

_Sant Antoni_ is currently being comprehensively refurbished respecting modernist building housing (reopening is planned in 2016, now occupying a temporary structure). A remodeling that will have four underground floors where a medium sized shopping center with international brands, car park, storage area and loading and unloading for traders. The rehabilitation works have found remains of the old medieval city wall and bastion of San Antonio, which will integrate into the market, as a cultural attraction. The offer of traditional market maintains the stalls of meat, vegetables, fish, etc. along with some innovative food and fruit juices, organic food, etc. The schedule is slightly expanded (from 7:30 to 14:30 and 17 to 20:30h) and does not open on weekends except of Saturday mornings. They have a website, in Catalan, Spanish and English providing basic information about its three areas: food, cloth and others. The audience is a mix between traditional classes and new sectors seeking local quality products and occasional tourists. They appear as the market is located into the new leisure night city area (Parlament / Poble Sec axis).

**Conclusions**

Tourism is opening new doors for the development of urban centers and particularly for urban food markets that have experienced the crisis of urban commerce in a framework in which new trends of third generation tourists demonstrate increased interest in this type of urban facility.

Specifically, touristification of urban centers as an attempt to revitalize the city relies on this type of equipment to open doors to new functions. Thus we can find markets evolve towards different future from their traditional use in order to supply the resident population to use them as a pure tourist attraction. The market version that has an intermediate position eases maintenance and success (community and tourism).

In this sense, we contrast the touristified markets as San Antón, San Miguel or La Princesa clearly aimed at tourists and local middle and upper classes public with a strong impact over the functional area with sustainable markets such as La Boqueria, Santa Caterina, and San Fernando which are markets that combine ancient customs and renewing and arranging them with the tourist demand which allows a great coexistence according to the current city way of act and its residents. Eventually, there are a set of markets that are looking for their horizon
or output. Some of them will enter into a final crisis or in other cases will be sustainable in an original and particular output or may be touristified. Time will tell. This is the case of the Sant Antoni and La Barceloneta Markets (both in Barcelona), Anton Martin, Mostenses, La Cebada (all of them in Madrid).

However, the question that arises is whether these sustainable markets will remain in that stage of equilibrium or whether they will move towards touristification, considering the attraction of middle and upper classes, and the tourism demand that would allow them to survive. The action of public administration is the key in their future and should be referred to their projects.

Cities could focus on conservation / remodeling traditional food markets without neglecting to capture the attention of tourists. This type of market that is geared to tourism but does not forget their origins, their service to lifetime local residents, will allow cities to innovate in their tourism resources and maintain their position in the tourism market, without leaving their duty to the local community. Its sustainable mix is the key to the city for the case of Barcelona brand, and also to Madrid. To not bet on them is to close the door to the (only) economic activity that is not in crisis, but on the contrary, is reviving the economy.

Bibliography


The Image of Budapest as the Best River Cruise Port City

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The actuality of our study is that Budapest won the American poll of Porthole Cruise Magazine as Best River Cruise Port of the Editor-in-Chief Award 2014. The study aims to give a picture about cruise hotel tourism in Danube and to show Budapest, the capital of Hungary and a popular tourist destination, which is becoming a major, internationally recognized port city on the Danube. It is a very good possibility to have a better image. The European river routes are becoming increasingly popular for American tourists. It also shows the success that more companies organizing cruise hotel trips to Budapest were also listed on the annual Gold List of Condé Nast Traveller. An average of 110 cruise hotels come to Budapest per year. 80% of the ships are occupied by American tourists who like to prolong their route a 3-4 day stay in Budapest, where they can visit the varied tourist attractions of the city and its surroundings. In the context of the study the cruise hotel stays in the Danube are presented and analysed, and we get a picture about Budapest as a preferred and increasingly popular tourist destination.

Introduction

The image of Budapest is influenced by a lot of marketing tools, local people and tourists. Cruise tourism is a special type of tourism which has a growing trend in the world and also in Budapest. That’s why our main research question was how the cruise tourism could influence the image of Budapest. We use 3 types of research methods: interviews document analysis and questionnaire, but in this article, we present only the last two ones. Our study we analysed the brochures of a cruise company to know what elements of tourist image the mention about Budapest. In the questionnaire survey we asked almost 200 people about their opinion, what they think about the image of Budapest. We assumed our results in a table to show that according to Mazanec (1994) tourist image elements, the functional ones are much stronger in Budapest than the psychological ones.
Theoretical background

The image of tourism destinations in research work began in the 1970s. Hunt had one of the first definitions in 1971; its image is defined as people’s all impressions about other places than the place of residence. In recent decades, many researchers clarified the concept of tourism image. Crompton’s (1979) definition draws attention that the tourism image involves beliefs, ideas and facts. According to Parenteau (1995) among the elements of the image there are positive and negative impressions to. (Gallarza, Gil, Calderon 2002) Sulyok (2006) wrote that the tourism image is a constantly changing, complex, has complicated structure, and relative and changing patterns in space and time.

According to Gunn (1998), the tourism image appears in two levels, the organic and the indicated level. The first one means the non-tourism specific news, television reports, articles, and other information. The second level is the marketing messages mediated by destination management organizations. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) complemented these two levels with a further one, the personal experiences.

The elements of tourist image can be determined by Mazanec (1994) along functional and psychological axis. Mazanec (1994) analysed the image elements based on 25 researches. Along the axis, the elements appear from tangible towards the emotional elements. The basic functional elements are the wide variety of attractions, landscape, environment, natural environment, cultural attractions and entertainment, nightlife. Among the emotional image elements the quality of services, originality and hospitality play the most important role.

In tourism image the landscape, the natural environment, cultural attractions the hospitality, the local people’s attitude and the entertainment are the strongest elements, so most of the tourist experts examine these elements. More important, but less commonly accepted elements of image are the accommodations, hospitality, gastronomy, destination accessibility, climate, shopping facilities, as well as the peace of mind.

According to Echtner and Ritchie (1993) tourism image can be examined along two more axes: individual characteristics – holistic and average/common – unique. Most of the authors think that the unique image elements are the most important along all three axes. These could determine the destination’s strengths which could be used for distinguish the destination from the other ones.

Milman and Pizam (1995) distinguish the tourism image elements into three components: the product which is associated with quality of services and the price/value ratio, the attitude to travellers/guests as hospitality, and the environment (for example landscape, natural environment, weather).
Trends of cruise tourism

The river cruising industry is one of the fastest growing vacation markets. Its growth rate is almost double compared to the overall transportation sector. There are more drivers of the growth. The population of the main sending countries have high standards of living. There is an increasing competition in the market, which means especially price competition for us. In more countries for example Russia, Ukraine and Bulgaria the cruise companies try to get more and more guests by decreasing their prices (Dragin et al. 2010). New and growing needs appear which become more important. More people desire to try new method of travelling; they want to meet more destinations without any moving. So the cruise hotels are very comfortable for them which give all luxury and security thing they need.

During the economic crises the cruise tourism had also good utilization and even in the last five years the number of passengers has increased by 10 % per year. (Hill 2013) In early 2014 more operator companies had already sold all tickets for the year 2015, so it is difficult to keep up with this growth. One of the biggest companies in the US, Viking River Cruises built six more cruise hotels and plans to raise additional ten.

The increased market demand leads to the formation of new round cruise trips every year. However, due to the increased competition not only the cruises but the destinations also have to keep up with the quality demand with their programs. Recognizing this demand cruises have to meet their guests’ needs not only on the cruise hotel but also with the destination program to special and different target groups. With new packages and thematic tours they can reach new segments of guests.

Cruise hotels offer a very good possibility to destinations where they stop to show their attractions and complex programs to the cruise guests. It is often carried out in such a way that the passengers disembark the cruise and have a one day sightseeing. (Jászberényi 2014) These destination specific programs make the cruise tourism more and more interesting, which could be a horse or folklore show; wine tasting, cooking trainee etc. The starting and the ending point of the cruise trip have the most possibilities to convince the guests with creative ideas to stay some more days and better know the destination.

The target group of cruise tourism is the 50-70 year old men and women with a lot of free time and high discretionary income. The main sending countries are USA, Australia, Japan and the countries of Northern and Western Europe. So there is a big challenge to reach young people and families.
Cruise tourism in Budapest

The capacity of cruises on the Danube is around 160-180 people. Every year 450-500 thousand passengers visit Budapest on cruises. The European sender countries stagnate, the overseas market increases 20% per year. 80% of the overseas passengers are American. 40% of guests from overseas extend their stay in Budapest by 2-3 nights. Their hotel reservation is concentrated on the 4-5 star hotels on the bank of the Danube, like Sofitel Budapest Chain Bridge, Budapest InterContinental, and Budapest Marriott Hotel. (Jászberényi 2014) Annual number of ports by cruise is 15-20. There are 200 river cruises on the Danube, belonging to 10-12 bigger companies. There are five big operators in the cruising market. One of these five is the Tauck World Discovery. Budapest is the starting or the ending point of the trips in most of the times.

Methodology

We chose the method of document analysis and questionnaire as two options to explore the image of Budapest. The advantage of the document analysis is that the documents are easily and quickly accessible via the Internet which makes this research method highly economical. In some cases, such materials are the exclusive sources of information. Another advantage of this method is that it does not affect the research results, but the materials concerned are not always comparable. The documents may reflect a unilateral view as they represent the approach of the company Tauck World Discovery about Budapest by brochures (Golnhofer 2001). However, these sources are sometimes difficult to access and/or deficient, and coding may also be a serious problem (Krippendorf 1980). The questionnaire –base survey is the best method for the researchers who want to collect authentic data. It is perfect to measure the attitude or the orientations of a larger sample mass. But it has the low validity but high reliability. The findings can be generalized. (Babbie 2000)

Results from document analysis

Tauck World Discovery was founded in 1925 which runs lands tours all over the world, but its river cruises focus in Europe. The first European river cruise launched in 1992 (Tauck World Discovery 2015) These cruise hotels have a lot of luxury services and another plus is that the guests spend less time on the cruise and more time exploring the stop destinations as Budapest. (OverwaterWorld.com 2015)

We analysed the Tauck World Discovery’s three brochures (Tauck 2014 2015ab) by document analysis, in which there are seven trips where one of the stops is Budapest. In four of them Budapest is the ending point (Imperial Europe: Budapest, Vienna &Prague, Blue Danube, Amsterdam to Budapest by Riverboat, Musical Magic along the Blue Danube), one of them start from
Budapest (Budapest to the Black Sea) and two of them go through Budapest (Warsaw, Budapest, Vienna & Prague, Grand European Cruise).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The elements of tourism image</th>
<th>Trips to Budapest</th>
<th>Trip from Budapest</th>
<th>Trips through Budapest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A wide variety of attractions</td>
<td>Szechenyi Baths, Heroes square, House of Terror Museum, castle Hill, Fisherman’s Bastion, Matthias Church, Parliament, State Opera House, Chain Bridge</td>
<td>Chain Bridge, Castle of Buda, Matthias Church, St. Stephen’s Basilica, Heroes’ Square, Parliament, Andrássy Avenue</td>
<td>City Park, Andrásy Avenue, UNESCO World Heritage Site, State Opera House, St. Stephen’s Basilica, Synagogue at Dohány street, Heroes’ Square, Imre Nagy Memorial House, House of Terror, Fisherman’s Bastion, Matthias Church,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landscape, environment</td>
<td>Historic sites</td>
<td>mediavel sites in the Hungarian countryside</td>
<td>two cities on opposite sides of the Danube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural attractions</td>
<td>Danube, park</td>
<td>Danube</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural attractions</td>
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<td>Bartók Béla Memorial House, historic monuments</td>
<td>cultural sites, jewish heritage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Private piano recital</td>
<td>guided tours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping facilities</td>
<td>shop like a local, Covered Market</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>The brochures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Sport facilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transport facilities</td>
<td>Pedi cab</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Le Meridien</td>
<td>Le Meridien</td>
</tr>
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<td>private dinner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price/value ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Climate</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Relaxation vs. Mass tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability</td>
<td>Budapest Ferenc Liszt Airport, Keleti train station</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>Puszta horse farm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Originality</td>
<td>folk traditions of Hungarian betyárs of centuries ago, horseback ride in Kunsági National Park</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>problem-free, most exciting and memorable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 The elements of tourism image by Tauck World Discovery’s trips
Table 1 shows the results of the document analysis. We collected all of the elements which refer to the image of Budapest in three types of tours. There are some elements which were mentioned in brochures in all trips such as Heroes’ Square and Matthias Church, so especially the wide variety of attractions. The accommodations and the availability were the same in all of the trips as the Meridien Budapest hotel, and the Budapest Liszt Ferenc Airport and the Keleti train station. The brochures themselves mean the information element. It is interesting that the shopping and transport facilities, hospitality and originality elements were mentioned only in the trips to Budapest. About quality of service only a citation referred to: Our entire Budapest to the Black sea cruise was seamless and problem-free’, “one of the most exciting and memorable adventures we’ve had’. There are some elements for which there is not any referred words as sport facilities, price/value ratio, climate, relaxation/mass tourism, security and relationship. It could be because the brochures as marketing tool cannot be appropriate to refer these elements.

Results from questionnaire

In 2012 summer we made a questionnaire among cruise passengers in Budapest, the questions were according to their opinion about cruise tourism in Danube and the image of Budapest. As wives and husbands participate on cruise tourism, it can be seen in the research too, 96 men and 101 women filled the questionnaire. The average age was 66 year. They could be categorized to five groups by nationality: German, British, American, French and Australian. Most of them (62,9%) for the first time, one quarter of them second or third time, and some of them for the seventh time were here in Budapest. 84,8 % would come again, which shows that the image of Budapest is quite strong and people have good opinion about the capital of Hungary. 34 % of the people think that the architecture of the city is amazing with its old, historical buildings, the bridges, the Andrassy Avenue. More people mentioned the atmosphere of the city. They like the green Buda side with hills and the historical Pest side. The attractions they prefer the Parliament, the Basilica, the Heroes square, the Mathias church and the Market hall. Some of them wrote about the landscape, the Danube, the openness, kindness and helpfulness of the local people, the history of the country, the Gellért Hill, the panorama from the Castle and the city in the night lightning. We also tried to know the negative opinion, but less than the 20 % of the people answer these questions and other 20 % thought that they were here less time than say any negative things about Budapest. So there were only some aspects they mentioned as the traffic jam, the constructions and the condition of the buildings. 41,9 % of the respondents positively disappointed in the city while 58,1% had positive impressions as they expected. None of them mentioned any negative alternatives. We did cross analysis between the number of the visits and the overall picture of the city. People who positively disappointed, 70 % of them came to Budapest for the first time. People who were here for more times,
the city could cause them surprise, which is a very good recognition for Budapest, since it means that it can be renewed, offer new level of programs and experiences. So the image of Budapest is constantly improved which is important for the tourists.

**Conclusion**

Analysing the image of Budapest by document analysis and questionnaire we could say, that not all of the elements of tourism image could appear in brochures and not all of them enough good or strong to be mentioned by a cruise tourist. (Table 2) It is interesting that almost the same elements miss from results of both research methods as sport facilities, price/value ratio, climate, relaxation/mass tourism, security and relationship. There were some elements which appeared only in brochures but not be mentioned by tourists as entertainment, nightlife, shopping and transport facilities, availability and originality. The typical functional elements are very strong according to both methods but most of the psychological elements are weak in the image of Budapest. So the results show that we should concentrate in our marketing tools to the psychological elements. Cruise tourist should know about our security and relationship. And we also have to emphasize our good price /value ratio, our good climate and the sport facilities as well.

Despite the fact that cruise tourism has long history in the river Danube, the organization which is responsible the tourism of Budapest did not deal with this segment. They thought it is not useful for Budapest because of all-inclusive service on cruises. Nowadays the approach has already changed and they see all of the advantages which cruise tourism can bring to Budapest. Travel agencies started to offer optional programs, which bring plus income. Trips could be supplemented with a 2-3 days staying, which tourists have high willingness to spend. Without marketing the country could be advertised by cruises. But we also have to know there are some threats. Vienna also applying for this transit position as Budapest, and the city has already carried out major port developments. On the other hand Budapest port infrastructure needs development. There is also a big problem there is no consensus about the place of international ports: If they remain in the city, they cut of locals and tourists the direct contact with the river Danube. But if they are in quay out of the city, Budapest loses the competitive advantages against Vienna.

Assuming our results and conclusions we could say that it is worth dealing with this segment of tourists and also investigating to analyse the impact of cruise tourism to the image of Budapest.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The elements of image</th>
<th>Document analysis</th>
<th>Questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>A wide variety of attractions</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Landscape, environment</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>Natural attractions</td>
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<td>Cultural attractions</td>
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<td>Entertainment, nightlife</td>
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<td>Sport facilities</td>
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<td>Accommodations</td>
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<td>Gastronomy</td>
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<td>Price/value ratio</td>
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<td>Relaxation vs. Mass tourism</td>
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<td>Availability</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>Security</td>
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<td>Relationship</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Originality</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality of services</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table2 The elements of tourism image by results of document analysis and questionnaire*

**Literature:**

Dragin A. S., Jovičić D., Lukić T. 2010. Cruising along the river Danube – Contemporary
Fakeye, P.C., Crompton, J.L. 1991. Image Differences Between Prospective, first-Time and


OverwaterWorld.com 2015. Tauck River Cruising, 
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Tauck 2014. European Rive Cruising 2014. Tauck World Discovery, 

Tauck 2015a. Yellow Roads of Europe 2015. Tauck World Discovery, 

Tauck 2015b. European Rive Cruising 2015. Tauck World Discovery, 

Tourists’ Perception of the Metropolitan Cluj-Napoca, Romania

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The metropolitan area of Cluj-Napoca is the focal point of tourism in North Transylvania. This exploratory study examines the profile, motivation, visiting behaviours, and perceptions of tourists visiting the most important metropolitan area in the region, with its historical, core city, which holds the title of European Youth Capital in 2015 and aspires for European Capital of Culture in 2021. Based on surveys carried out in the spring and summer of 2014, the findings indicate that three types of tourism dominate the metropolitan Cluj-Napoca: cultural tourism, business tourism and VFR tourism. While the periphery is more attractive for mountain tourism and week-end recreation, the core emerges with a great diversity of events. Tourists were overall satisfied with their time spent on the destination. Furthermore, out of a number of tourist attractions only the ones located in Cluj-Napoca were familiar or even visited by most of the tourists, the rest were as if inexistent. Thus, findings indicate great distribution inequalities. The implications of the results on metropolitan development processes and strategies are also discussed.

Introduction

The image of a destination can be described as “perceptions about the place as reflected by the associations held in tourist memory” (Cai 2002: 723). The understanding of tourists’ perceptions of a metropolitan destination is important in developing successful marketing strategies to promote and position the urban destination. In the case of Cluj-Napoca, the results are even more important, due to the organization of the European Youth Capital in 2015 (further EYC), as they suggest actions and tools to reshape some weak and/or negative dimensions of the image of Cluj-Napoca or to reinforce/reinvent a positive one.

Furthermore, tourists’ overall satisfaction is directly influenced by tourists’ perceptions and destination image in general (Chi & Qu 2008). The likeliness to revisit and willingness to recommend to others (Giraldi & Cesareo 2014), namely destination loyalty is also being influenced by overall satisfaction (Chi & Qu 2008). Thus creating such positive behavioural intentions is an important goal of metropolitan tourism destinations as it is a key component for a place’s long-term viability and sustainability (Chen 2008).

Until now, few studies have been undertaken in Romania regarding tourists’ perceptions. Having that in mind, the present study examines tourists’
perceptions of Cluj-Napoca as a metropolitan tourism destination, the motivations underlying tourists’ selection of the city and overall satisfaction of the destination. The identification of the visitors’ profile and travel behaviours is also envisaged.

Tourism in the metropolitan area of Cluj-Napoca

Cluj-Napoca is one of the biggest and most important metropolitan areas (ma.) of Romania, considered as the capital or heart of Transylvania for many reasons. The ma. was constituted in 2008 by the Cluj County Council (decision 415/2008), with the association of the municipality of Cluj-Napoca and surrounding 17 rural administrative units (Vicsai 2012). Geographically it is located in the North-western part of the country, in Cluj County, the municipality of Cluj-Napoca (Kolozsvár, Klausenburg) being the regional capital of the North Transylvania Development Region. Due to its favourable geographical position, its attractiveness form economic point of view, its cultural diversity and valuable tourism potential, the ma. is an important hub not just for regional, but for international connections as well.

In Romania, it is possible to create metropolitan areas since 2001. According to the law, big urban centres (such as the capital city and 1st rank cities - municipality of national importance, with regional role and potential influence at European level) and those urban or rural municipalities, which developed multilateral cooperation relationships, in their immediate neighbourhood (at a max. 30 km distance) can join for a metropolitan area. The ma. is created by voluntary partnership and association, with the main aim of improving the infrastructure and setting up common development goals (Benedek 2006).

The Cluj-Napoca ma should not be compared with great European metropolises, such as Vienna, Paris or Budapest. Compared to these Cluj-Napoca still feels like a small town, where people still great each other on the streets. Its constant population is 411 379 inhabitants (59.5% of Cluj county), on a total area of 153.754 ha (23% of Cluj county), with a population density of 267. 7 people per km².

Although Cluj-Napoca has no first-rang tourist attractions of global importance (such as UNESCO World Heritage objectives), can be defined as a credible and complex destination, attractive on European, hence national, regional and local levels. Cluj-Napoca is positioned in Europe as a valuable and representative city: historically, culturally and educationally, a multicultural city (where Romanians live together with Hungarian, German, Jewish and Roma ethnic minorities of different religions), having that specific “spirit of place” defined by
the ICOMOS Declaration in 2008\(^1\). In addition to the natural, anthropic, material and immaterial heritage of Cluj and its ma., are a multitude of events (classical or non-conformist) which make the city vibrate.

Cluj-Napoca is the main tourist destination in Cluj County and in the region of North Transylvania (Cozma 2012). The economic crisis was felt in this sector as well during the period 2009-2010, the ascending trend being resumed starting 2011. Despite this, in the last 6 years Cluj-Napoca’s importance in terms of tourism, reached a concentration from 65% in 2008 to 85% in 2013 of the total arrivals and overnight stays in the county of Cluj. Relating to North Transylvania, in the last 6 years, the importance of Cluj-Napoca was relatively constant, both in terms of arrivals (between 27-32%) and overnight stays (between 16-24%).

In the municipality of Cluj-Napoca there is a pronounced seasonality, with two peaks in a year: May-June and September-October. In these peak seasons the tourist circulation exceeds the average annual with 20%, while in the off-seasons drops under the average with 35%. On the other hand, the average length of stay is maintained relatively stable, varying between 1.65 and 1.85 nights.

![Diagram of tourist arrivals and overnight stays in Cluj-Napoca](image)

*Diagram 1 Tourist arrivals and overnight stays in Cluj-Napoca ma., 2008-2013 (Data source: NIS, 2015)*

Analysing the tourism offer in terms of functioning accommodation capacity, we find that in contrary with the tourism demand the ma. of Cluj-Napoca holds only 18-23% of the region’s capacity, and between 60-74% of the county’s capacity. Comparing the existing accommodation capacity with other cities

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\(^1\) Québec Declaration on the preservation of the spirit of place, Adopted at Québec, Canada, October 4\(^{th}\) 2008.
considered major tourist destinations in Transylvania, it appears that the city of Cluj-Napoca occupies a second place (4720 beds), after Brașov (6357 beds, without Poiana Brașov) and before Sibiu (4093 beds). In terms of comfort levels of units, compared with these two localities, in Cluj-Napoca 4 and 5 star categories are better developed, indicating an orientation of the city to business tourism. 2 and 3 star units add up 64.3% of the total capacity (in Brașov 65.4%, in Sibiu 72.1%). The occupancy oscillates between 15-30% during a calendar year (which is currently the main concern in the hospitality industry), reaching the highest occupancy rates in peak seasons.

Diagam 2 Structure of accommodation capacity in Cluj-Napoca and other Transylvanian cities (Source: CNDS, 2014 with modifications)

In 2015 Cluj-Napoca is the European Youth Capital\(^2\). The program’s mission is to support youngsters and youth organizations in their active participation in changing the society through a sustainable, responsible and inclusive urban development process. It’s motto in Cluj is ‘share’: share culture, work, space, power, joy, vision, European, responsibility, region. The main aims for 2015 are to: involve local community in youth projects and youth activities; to become major European centre for events, meetings and conferences; to involve youngsters and youth organizations in the urban development process; to increase sustainable cooperation between local, national and European organizations; to increase the level of European’s awareness about Cluj-Napoca and Transylvania (to look beyond the myth of Dracula, vampires and dragons); to create lasting partnerships; to support innovation and creative ideas; and to create lasting financial mechanisms for projects and youth structures\(^3\). The title was won by the Municipality of Cluj-Napoca and the SHARE Cluj-Napoca Federation received the responsibility to implement the project, forming a

\(^2\) Title offered by The European Youth Forum since 2009 \\
public-private partnership. Furthermore, this unique opportunity will hopefully forever change the status of Cluj-Napoca on the mental map of Europe, aiming at developing an attractive destination not just for youngsters, where people return with pleasure.

**Research questions and methodology**

Based on the theoretical foundations and current situation of tourism in Cluj-Napoca, the following research questions were formulated:

Q1. What are the main motivations for visiting Cluj-Napoca?
Q2. What are the main visiting behaviours?
Q3. What are the perceptions of Cluj visitors and how do they appraise the tourism offer of the metropolitan area?
Q4. Do tourists associate Cluj with the EYC in 2015?
Q5. What is the behavioural intention to revisit Cluj and to recommend the city as a favourable destination to others?

The methodology was quantitative in nature and employed a survey research design as a common method to investigate motivations to travel and perceptions of tourists. Before the design of the questionnaire, we conducted a desk-study to obtain information on the attributes and motivations of tourists. Also, secondary data (statistics) and previous surveys related to tourists’ behaviour were considered.

After the design of the questionnaire (in Romanian, English, Hungarian and German), a pre-test was performed to ensure the internal and external consistency of the questions. The final self-administered structured questionnaire was applied in the Tourist Information Office located in the historical centre of the city, but also in other high tourist interest points of the city, such as Birthplace of King Mathias and Museum Square, the Tailors’ Tower, the Botanical Garden, and the periphery of the metropolitan area: the Bánffy Castle in Bonțida, the Cojocna Salt Baths and Gilău-Tarnița Lakes. These places were appropriate for data collection for two main reasons. First, they are well-known parts of the city and hence attract a cross section of tourists, which is representative of the tourist population as a whole. Second, the pilot study revealed that the average time required to complete the questionnaire is 8 minutes, and therefore visitors who are waiting in line to enter a site or are in no hurry have sufficient time to complete it.

The survey took part between March and September 2014 via a convenience sampling method. The questionnaire used did not envisage distinguishing between domestic and international tourists, or simple visitors (excursionists) and tourists (min. one overnight sleep), even if we are aware that these types of visitors could have a different perception toward the city of Cluj-Napoca. Of the
237 questionnaires collected, 22 were not usable. Thus, a total of 215 questionnaires were coded for data analysis.

Findings and discussion

Table 1 presents the profile of the survey respondents. The tourists that visited Cluj-Napoca are relatively young, 45.6% belonging to the 22-35 age group, mainly with higher education diplomas and a moderate monthly net income (500-1000 € in 16.7%, and 300-500 € in 13%). In terms of country of origin, tourists came from: Romania (27.4% - domestic visitors), Hungary (12.1%), Italy and Germany (10.2% each), followed by France, USA, Poland, Turkey, Israel and Spain. There are also tourists from the Netherlands, UK, Denmark, Sweden, Austria, Belgium, Greece, Portugal, Switzerland, but also from China, India or Australia.

The main reasons for choosing Cluj-Napoca as their travel destination were: visiting cities and urban tourism (28%), business (14%), VFR tourism (11%), just transit (9%) and recreation / active recreation (8%) and studying (8%). On the opposite side of the motivation spectrum is: conference, congress or professional course, fairs and expositions, for religious purposes or shopping. As expected, cultural urban tourism and business tourism are the two most dominant tourism types in Cluj-Napoca. However, VFR tourists are also quiet numerous, exceeding those who are just passing through. The most important difference between the two is that VFRs spend a few nights at the destination and have the necessary free time to engage in touristic or leisure activities.

Next to domestic travellers (37%), the first time travellers are the most numerous (28% in case of visits to Romania and 42% in case of visits to Cluj-Napoca). 17% of the visitors were in the metropolitan area for the second time in their lives, only 8% for the third time and 34% have been there more than three times before. Regarding travel partners, 36% of the respondents travelled with friends or acquaintances, followed by those travelling with family / as a couple / or life partner in 34%; 17% travel alone and 13% with fellow workers. In terms of organization, the majority travelled individually (79.5%).

Regarding the transportation means and vehicles used, Table 2 illustrates the percentage of respondents that used the listed transport vehicles during their journey to the destination. Almost half of the respondents arrived by airplane (51.5% of these with a low-cost airline). Airports where the tourist landed were: Cluj-Napoca 63%, Bucharest Băneasa 13%, Bucharest Otopeni 11%, Târgu Mureș 5%, Budapest Hungary and Chișinău Moldova 3% each, Milan, Italy and Timișoara 1% each. This also indicates the entrance points of air travellers and points out the significance of the international airport located in Cluj-Napoca. In addition, 27.9% used a rental car for travelling to or around the ma., 26.5% used their own automobile, 16.3% used the railway and only 9.3% used buses to get
to their destination. Among other transport modes were: hitchhiking, cycling and motor riding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>52,1</td>
<td>primary school</td>
<td>1,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47,9</td>
<td>secondary school</td>
<td>18,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-21 years</td>
<td>7,4</td>
<td>non-university higher education</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-34 years</td>
<td>45,6</td>
<td>university higher education</td>
<td>65,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44 years</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td>no income</td>
<td>11,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-59 years</td>
<td>18,6</td>
<td>less than 300</td>
<td>8,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 and over</td>
<td>11,6</td>
<td>301-500</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country of origin</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Monthly net income</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>27,4</td>
<td>501-1000</td>
<td>16,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>12,1</td>
<td>1001-1500</td>
<td>12,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>10,2</td>
<td>1501-2500</td>
<td>9,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>10,2</td>
<td>over 2501</td>
<td>12,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>7,4</td>
<td>don’t know / no answer</td>
<td>15,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>5,6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>3,7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>3,2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1,9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Netherlands, UK, Denmark, Sweden, Austria, Belgium, Greece, Australia, Switzerland, Portugal, India, China)</td>
<td>15,8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 Sample characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transportation</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percent of travellers using ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Airplane</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(51,5% low-cost)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rental car</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>27,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>own automobile</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>26,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>train</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bus</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other (taxi, hitchhike, bicycle, motorbike)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5,6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Transportation choices

The most common accommodation type among visitors were 3 star hotels (18%), followed by accommodation by friends and relatives (14%), pensions (11%), 4 star hotels (9%), youth-hotels and hostels (8%), then rural accommodation (6%). Only 5% stayed at 5 star hotels. Other accommodation types were also present with 6% and included couch surfing and pilgrimage house.

Furthermore, tourists were asked which features took part in their accommodation choice (Diagram 3), on a scale of one to five, from not at all
important to very important. Accessibility got 3.7 points, nice and pleasant surroundings 3.6 points; good value for money was the most important, getting in average 3.8 points, while wide range of services and professionally trained staff were the least important. However, none of the features had in average a below medium importance.

![Diagram 3 Accommodation choice features](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>just transit</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visiting cities / urban tourism</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recreation / active recreation</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shopping</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visiting friends and relatives</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>business trip</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conference / congress / professional course</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cultural / sport events</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fares / expositions</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medical treatment / health care</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>studying</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religion / pilgrimage</td>
<td>115.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Average nights spent in Cluj-Napoca by travel motivations

The average length of stay is 15.7 nights in Romania and 8.5 nights in Cluj-Napoca ma. These high values can be explained with the fact that those travelling for study, medical treatment or pilgrimage purposes spent a few months or in some cases almost a year in Romania. Here we also have to mention that the official statistics (1.65-1.85 nights in Cluj-Napoca) only refer to commercial accommodation. Therefore, the calculation is more accurate in comparison with travel motivations. Table 3 shows these results, according to which those in transit spend the least nights (1.2 nights), while those for study or pilgrimage the most (between 1.5 and 4 months). Urban tourists spend 2.1 nights, VFRs 3.2 nights and business travellers spent in average 3.4 nights in Cluj-Napoca.
In order to understand travel preferences better, respondents were asked to write down those localities (cities, towns and villages) which they visited during their current travel (without any restriction in numbers). Based on their answers the map in Picture 1 represents: localities mentioned more than 30 times (Bucharest, Turda, Sibiu and Brașov), localities mentioned more than 10 times (these were mainly county capitals and medieval cities such as Oradea, Timișoara, Târgu-Mures, Alba-Iulia, Sighișoara), localities mentioned at least 5 times (Iași, Baja-Mare, Bistrița, Arad, Huedin, Sovata, Praid etc.), localities mentioned at least 2 times (Dej, Gherla, Gilău, Aiud, Deva, Hunedoara, Ciucea, Vatra-Dornei, Gheorgheni, Bacău, Corund, Sfântu-Gheorghe, Sinaia etc.), and localities mentioned only one time (Mera, Făget, Satul Gheorgheni, Muntele Băisorii, Beclean, Reghin, Salonta, Borsec, Vișcri etc.). As the map shows, mostly Transylvanian localities dominate the travel map of Cluj-Napoca’s visitors. Within Cluj county: Turda, Rîmetea, Huedin are the most visited, while inside the metropolitan area the following localities turned up: Bonțida, Gilău, Făget, Apahida, Mera, Feleacu and Gheorgheni. These weren’t mentioned by too many, which leads to the conclusion that tourists rarely adventure out of the core city of the metropolitan area, except some exceptions.

The map also demonstrates that Cluj-Napoca has a great dispersion power, from where most of Transylvania’s attractions are within easy reach. Furthermore, Cluj-Napoca represents an important stopping point in Transylvanian tourist circuits. Besides these localities, the respondents also mentioned geographical, cultural or natural regions: Maramureș, Bucovina and Moldavia historical regions; Bâlea Lake, Danube Delta and Apuseni Mountains; Saxon villages and Transylvanian villages in general; or Călătovka (Kalotaszeg).

Internet was the main information source (68.4%) for those travelling to Cluj-Napoca. Therefore we consider that marketing on the internet, visibility and active presence on social media is extremely important at this point, considering the profile of Cluj-Napoca’s visitors. Internet is closely followed by information acquired from friends and relatives (56.3%), so unpaid WOM\(^4\) advertising agents (Chen & Chen 2010) also pay an important role in creating a positive destination image of Cluj. Not to mention the effects of social media which combines the two means, by eWOM\(^5\), through travel blogs, travel websites with user generated content such as TripAdvisor and company (Vasquez 2014). Travel guides were mentioned by 17.2% of the respondents, travel agents and agencies by only 2.3%, prospectus, newspaper/magazines and TV/radio/Cinema by 1.4%.

In terms of daily spending, visitors spent, 92.2 € on the average per person. Table 4 shows the average daily spending broken down to different categories.

\(^4\) Word of Mouth

\(^5\) electronic Word of Mouth
Although statistically there was no significant relationship between the two variables, out of the 4 main tourism types dominant in the city: business tourists spend in average 121.4 €, followed by urban cultural tourists 104.6 €, VFR tourists 100.7 € and transit visitors spend only 53.7 €.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Daily spending / person in €</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>% of ‘0’ spending</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accommodation</td>
<td>26,03</td>
<td>21,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eating</td>
<td>20,14</td>
<td>7,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transportation</td>
<td>20,10</td>
<td>17,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shopping</td>
<td>17,45</td>
<td>26,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>programs</td>
<td>8,03</td>
<td>43,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 Average daily spending in Cluj-Napoca

However, there was significant relationship between the variables: daily spending and age (sig F 0,001) and also income (sig F=0,031). Daily spending increases with age and with higher incomes. It is interesting that those of no income spend as much as those with a moderate income, which indicates that these are the students travelling on their pocket money or different scholarships and grants.

Tourists were asked to appraise the tourism offer and different features of service quality in Cluj-Napoca ma., on a one to five Likert scale. As Diagram 4
shows, all the nine features got in average over 3.8 assessment points, meaning a valuation of these different elements to medium high - almost good. Hospitality was the most highly valued (in average 4.53) meaning that in terms of hospitality the city is more than good, while environmental cleanliness received the lowest ratings 3.85 points. These results show that visitors of the metropolitan area were in general satisfied with the tourism offer and service quality and appraised these features to good level, leaning to very good in some exceptions.

Although it is not a flawless measurement method, we chose a five point Likert scale to measure overall satisfaction with time spent on the destination. The overall satisfaction of tourists with time spent in Cluj-Napoca was 4.37 points.

![Diagram 4 Perceptions of tourism offer and service quality](image)

Tourism could not exist without the presence of attractions (Pigram 1983), which fundamentally influence the overall image and market profile of the destination (Mill & Morrison 1985). Tourists are drawn to destinations by their attractions, which can be major generators of revenue and employment for host communities (Michalkó 2012). Therefore we considered it important asking tourist about their familiarity with different tourist attractions, and also their interest towards these, when assessing their perceptions. 10 tourist attractions were chosen based on a list of most important and visited tourist attractions of Cluj County: 4 attractions from the city of Cluj-Napoca, 3 from the metropolitan area and 3 from the rest of the county.

*Diagram 5* shows the respondents had already visited: Museum Square in Cluj-Napoca (40.2%), St. Michaels Church in the city center (38.8%), Turda Gorges (30.5%) and Apuseni Mountains in general (28.1%). Only 5.8% visited Cojocna Salt Baths and 7.8% the Reformed Church in Huedin. Attractions that were planned to be visited were: the National Historical Museum of Transylvania in Cluj (28%), Turda Gorges (25.7%), Apuseni Mountains and Tarnita-Gilău Lakes
The interest and familiarity was also high for these attractions. The majority of the respondents never heard of: Cojocna Salt Baths (59.9%), Reformed Church in Huedin (55.9%), Bánffy Castle in Bonțida (54.7%) and the Botanical Garden in Cluj (52.9%). Surprisingly the most important museum of the city is also taboo to many visitors, 35.7% never heard of it. All in all, except the Botanical Garden, more than 60% of the respondents were familiar of and were interested in the mentioned urban attractions; in case of the attractions located in the suburban area of the metropolis, less than 45% presented familiarity and also interest; while except the Reformed church in Huedin, the natural attractions of the rest of the county were familiar and arouse interest in almost 70% of visitors.

Half a year before the start of EYC 2015, 43% of the respondents heard about Cluj-Napoca being the youth capital in the following year. Although the municipality’s and SHARE Federation’s marketing campaign, media presence, strategies and vision were so far the strongest the city of Cluj-Napoca has ever seen, the results of this survey suggests that less than a year before the title (when the promotional campaign already flourished) more than half of the visitors had not heard of the program. Therefore, we consider it is the responsibility of the program management, the county council and also of the residents’ themselves to spread the program, its opportunities and values as far as possible, with every possible means.
The relationship between familiarity with the program and age and also travel motivations was tested. Statistically there is no significant relationship between familiarity and age; and familiarity and travel motivations. The reasons behind these findings can be: either the calculations are correct, and age and motivation have no effect on program familiarity, or the low number of cases led to statistical error.

Destination loyalty can be defined as the likeliness to revisit and the willingness to recommend the destination to others (Chen & Tsai 2007; Oppermann 2000). Measuring these can provide a better understanding of tourist retention. Retaining existing tourists usually has much lower associated costs than winning new ones. Furthermore, loyal tourists are more likely to recommend friends, relatives or other potential tourists to a destination by acting as unpaid WOM advertising agents. We can observe that the intention of revisiting Romania in general is stronger (4.31) than in the case of Cluj-Napoca (3.95), while the willingness to recommend both the country and the metropolis is at the same level. In case of returning to the destination the probability of returning to the same accommodation unit is only 3.46 (a little over neutral). The willingness to recommend the accommodation unit to others is also lowers (3.77).

![Figure 6 Intentions to revisit Cluj and to recommend the city as a favourable tourism destination](image)

**Conclusions**

This paper examines the profile, visiting behaviours and tourists’ motivations towards visiting Cluj-Napoca metropolitan area before the hosting of the 2015 European Youth Capital. The understanding of tourists’ perceptions of a metropolitan destination is important for the destination to position itself in this increasingly competitive environment. Cluj-Napoca is the heart of Transylvania in so many ways and will remain the focal point of tourism in the next few years, not just in Northern Transylvania, but in the whole region of Transylvania, and even in Romania. The forthcoming events offer great development opportunities.
According to the results of the empirical research undertaken, many tourists who arrived in Cluj-Napoca seem to have been to Sibiu, Braşov, Turda, Sighişoara, Târgu-Mureş, Oradea and other Transylvanian destinations as well. This shows that the city remains as an emergent destination and is part of tourists’ tours that incorporate visits to more than one city. Furthermore, the tourists that visit Cluj-Napoca are relatively young and well educated from all over the EU. In terms of motivations it seems that three types of tourism dominate: cultural tourism, business tourism, VFR tourism and transit tourism. VFR has a much greater importance, than initially thought. Almost half of them are first timers, so they have to be convinced and impressed in order to return to the city and spread positive WOM. Many arrive by airplane, using the Cluj-Napoca regional airport’s traditional or low-cost airlines or initially land in Bucharest and transfer by rental car, train or bus to Cluj. They chose different accommodation types, from 3 to 4 star hotels, urban or rural pensions, youth hostels or stay at friends and relatives or even couch surfing. It seems that the most important features in choosing their accommodation are good value for money, nice-pleasant surroundings and good accessibility. The majority inform themselves about the destination from the internet and friends/acquaintances. During their visit, tourists spend daily in average of 92.2 Euro (on accommodation, meals, transportation, programs and shopping).

Cluj-Napoca was considered a place where hospitality of people is great, where the accommodation and catering services are good, where the landscape and cityscape is also good, where there are plenty of tourist attractions and programs to enjoy, where public security and accessibility are also good and environmental cleanliness is moderate. Tourists were overall satisfied with Cluj-Napoca as a metropolitan destination. The familiarity with tourist attractions inside the core city and the periphery of the metropolitan area, together with the localities mentioned as visited or planned to be visited during current stay, indicates that tourist rarely adventure out to the periphery and aren’t aware of the attractions and possibilities in the rural area outside the city of Cluj-Napoca. We found that the periphery is more attractive for mountain tourism, week-end recreation and host unique cultural events, such as: village days, gastronomic festivals, folk dance festivals, while the core city emerges with a great diversity of attractions and events.

The results also indicate that a little less than half of the tourists were aware of the city status as EYC in 2015 and are likely to return someday to Cluj-Napoca and are more than willing to recommend Romania and Cluj-Napoca to their family, friends and acquaintances.

Finally, what are the implications on metropolitan development processes and strategies? Firstly, tourists profile, behaviour and perceptions are key elements of understanding tourism in a destination; therefore they should be closely
monitored and studied. Even if we got interesting insights in the Cluj-Napoca tourism destination, this empirical study has a preliminary nature and, thus, does not allow extracting conclusive answers. There is place for going deeper in what regards knowing better the tourists’ typologies and image perceptions. A broader understanding of tourism implies also making use of a variety of research tools, of quantitative and qualitative nature, that allow to improve the rigor of the analysis. Secondly, making information available of all the attractions and events of the metropolitan area (free maps, event calendar) is necessary and include these events, cultural manifestations in the program of the EYC, for a greater dispersion of tourists and a wider spectrum of possibilities. The information boards and tourist indicators are deficient and entirely missing in the periphery, they should be completed and installed in order to make the tourism offer more visible. Furthermore, do not forget VFR and transit tourists, they are numerous and could be easily convinced of extending their stay in the city in order to participate in an event/program, visit a museum, listen to a concert or spend an active recreation day outside the city. Last but not least, to make Cluj-Napoca a more tourism friendly city (tourist cards, multi-linguist, tourist police, more pedestrian areas in the city centre, public transport information inside the core and outside, more information desks at the entrance points of the city etc.).

Acknowledgements
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Mapping and reading the city through literature; the role of cult fictions in the interpretation of the city

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Postmodern cults tend to create new terrains of interpretation of urban locations. Besides their traditional profiles cities and metropolises have gained abstract layers of meanings as a result of literary cults and film location tourism for example, and partly with an intricate relationship with these- due to celebrity cults. An urban site can be the built heritage with all the semantic layers of various cultural contents and individual experiences, but, at the same time it can be a web of spaces filtered out from various novels or movies, etc. London can be, and has long been Dickens’ London, Dublin has also got the fictitious character of being the spot of James Joyce’s Ulysses, Moscow is the stage of Bulgakov’s Master and Margareta, and Rome is no longer only the center of the Roman Empire, and is not only Renaissance Rome, Baroque Rome, or the Pope’s Rome, but at least as much Fellini’s Rome, Woody Allan’s Rome, Jim Jarmusch’s Rome, or the Rome of the Angels and Demons. The city or metropolis as a location of a story is a fictitious abstraction in a novel or in a movie: if, in turn the city abstracted in the work of art is made real as a mode of interpretation in the form of a touristic destination, the abstraction –we can say- is multiplied. The city locations are burdened by – and in some cases contain exclusively – the meanings and the ‘feeling’ of the work of art (novel or film). What is the experience of the tourist who wants to see the location of the Angels and Demons and, according to the interviews, wishes to feel participation in the film? What reality is it he claims to experience? In all the cases mentioned above intensive tourism is built upon the phenomenon: there are and have been Ulysses city tours, Bulgakov city tours, and, lately also Angels and Demons city tours .In what ways are these phenomena alternative forms of cultural tourism? It is exciting to examine the question of authenticity in these cases in terms of the tourist’s motivation, experience, memory and elaboration. In my research concerning factiousness vs authenticity ‘dreamscape’ and generous loci we have approached the phenomenon through the so-called cultural memory theory. Our results are based on interviews and questionnaires on an international basis. Key words: authenticity, reality factiousness, experience, literary cults, memory places, postmodern cults, dreamscape, memory scape, tourist gaze, genius loci, lieu, milieu, social representation

Introduction

The locations of a city are real places since with their material entity they are unquestionably present. Or are they? In what way is an urban location real if it gains its importance as the location of a scene of a famous and cultic novel? My paper wishes to investigate the nature of authenticity and reality in cases when the built heritage acquires semantic layers other than what is seemingly real at least in terms of perceived tactile and visual mode of representation. An urban
location burdened with cultic literary meaning raise a huge number of questions above all the two basic aspects of it: literature and architecture. Are the spectacles of a literature city tour about the building (architecture) or about the novel (literature), or both, or neither?

**Literary cults**

Literary cults, i.e. the cultic approach to famous authors and works of art are not a new phenomenon, in special ways they have always existed. This realm of human phenomenon used to exist outside the interest of literary critics and serious academic approach since it seemed closer to popular representations than high culture to which literature scholars normally claim to belong to. With an anthropological turn in literary studies from the 1980’s and with a growing interest in human behavior outside the terrains of psychology studies literary cults have come more into the foreground .In the study of literary cults scholarly and popular grounds of literature have started to overlap as a result of which absolutely new questions have been raised concerning the author, the work of art and meaning (Dávidházi, 1989, 1994).Studying cults is a special interpretative practice that examines not only the texts but also the image of the author as well as objects and actions related to him/her in terms of how culture is consumed everything Paul de Man calls disdaining the ‘foreign affairs of literature’
(Takács, 2002). We can state examination of cults means how a given literature is culturally imbedded.

**Literary city tours: a corruption of both the buildings and the literary pieces. Or is it a different cognition?**

In case of a building approached and interpreted from any aspect of literature it is not only literature that is ‘corrupted’, but architecture as well. We can say it is not only the piece of literature that is not appreciated for its immanent literary values, but the same is true for the building in terms of architecture: the visitor who appreciates a building because it is an important place in a novel will surely not give either the building or the literary piece a great esteem (according to their own terms: literature according to terms of literature, and architecture according to terms of architecture /let us not go deeper into the theoretical question of what these terms really are in their academic meanings/). But he/she does greatly esteem the … what exactly? What is the visitor’s reality and what is his experience? This is the question of this study.

The phenomenon will be investigated in terms of the following theories: *experience economy* (Gilmore, 1999), *collective and cultural memory* (Halbwachs 1941, Assmann, 1999) *genius loci* and the phenomenology of architecture (Norberg-Schulz, 1980), *social representations* (Moscovici, 1984) and *lieu de mémoire* (Pierre Nora, 2010) respectively on a comparative and confronting method.

The house is not a building for its own architectural merits and is in no way an element of literature in the closest scholarly sense. What is the building then? Is it a fictitious place in a real urban space? Does it exist at all in the basic sense of the word? It surely does, because you can see it and you can touch it whereas it definitely has got a very intricate system of meanings in the sense of cognition. With this provocative approach our final aim is to get closer to the notion of *authenticity* in the touristic space.

Besides the terrain of literature there are all kinds of cultic places in relation to famous persons like in case of the ‘Great Old Man’ Sigmund Freud (Erőss F. 1994), or Rembrandt, etc. Actually all kinds of places related to important historical figures can be conceived in terms of cultic meaning to a certain extent. We are aware of the fact the term ‘cult’ is very problematic, sometimes it seems too much burdened, sometimes even translucent. In a way it can be claimed all cultural tourism is pushed by some kind of cultic interest producing cultic behavior.

In this paper *cult* and *cultic* will be used in the relatively narrow sense of *quasi-religious devotion* towards something definitely not religious with a specific attitude, ritual and a language: ‘The attitude characteristics of cults is
unconditional reverence, a commitment so total and devoted, so final and absolute that it precludes every conceivable criticism of its object.’ (Dávidházi, 1994, 31)

Elements of pilgrimage appearing outside the terrain of religion are well-known to all of us from boring school excursions when birthplaces, death masks, pens and slippers of famous literary figures had to be visited and observed on an obligatory basis. The cultic approach to outstanding literary, cultural, or historical figures have always attracted visitors and induced tourism. Visiting quasi sacred places is a typical phenomenon of cultic behavior. The tourist may sometimes only for seconds turn into a pilgrim who needs to obtain a relic at least in the form of a souvenir. Reduced size famous houses of famous people are available in the museum shop in puzzle or pop up form and/or as pictures on fridge magnets, mugs, and umbrellas or on T-shirts.

Placed of memory (‘lieux de mémoire’) gain essences originally not their own, that is to say, something that is not there, something that DOES NOT EXIST (it is of course a theoretical problem whether the concept ‘originally intrinsic’ to a place or there are as many interpretations as experiences. The question is very complicated since the personal experience is itself not definable and depends on age, education, culture, psychological state, etc., and can be approached synchronically diachronically, hermeneutically, micro-historically, etc. For the purpose of this study we assume that there is a tangible sign system of a place to be understood geographically, historically, culturally, that is worth examining from the point of view of the visitor’s perception). The pilgrim (-like) places are filled with contents originally not their own, i.e. with something actually not there. The goal of cultic travel does not actually exist and its significance should not be looked for in its real representative presence but in some other additional value. The goal of any cultic travel is NOT A PLACE, but, more precisely a NON-PLACE. Augé argues, as opposed to places non-places ' do not integrate to earlier places and they are classified and promoted to the places of 'places of memory’ and assigned to a specific position’ (Augé , 1995,78, italics mine)

Mechanisms of consumption strengthen the need for spectacles (Best, 1989) and institutionalize how the tourist attractions should be gazed upon, photographed and framed (Urry, 1995). The ‘toured objects’ (Belhassen, 2008) are then captured and reproduced as previously imagined in representative examples. The phenomenon may be interpreted with Mitchell’s (2005) ’pictorial turn.’ It is a shift that has been denoted as a transition into a society as spectacle. The real has become hyper-real or a simulacrum (Ricoeur, 1999), the world has been replaced by a copy of the world. Umberto Eco labelled this notion as the ‘authentic fake’ (1986), a concept possible to be paralleled to Stafford’s ’ocular centrism’ (1997).
The most evident cultic places in literature may be burial places, homes of, or any important locations in relation to the deceased author. The touristic value is the personal aspect that may make the figure of the famous author more human and personal and possibly more consumable through a process of domestication. The motivation is not to know or to understand better the oeuvre of the author, and the phenomenon has got nothing to do with the work of art. A huge number of visitors and potential visitors most probably have never read and will never read anything from the given author. These houses then, are not what they are: they are permeated by a content that makes them special and create a 'feeling’ around them possible to compare to the notion of genius loci (Debuyst, 2005). In this sense real objects can be called fictitious as well. They do not exist in the manner they are consumed and conceived which means they ARE NOT THERE as they are in the cognition of the tourist pilgrim.

**Originally real locations of a novel**

Besides locations in connection to the author (birthplace, burial place, etc.) another exciting mode of literary cult induced tourism is when locations of a real city are the scenes of a literary piece. This paper wishes to treat how city locations of a novel filtered through the narration become cultic places valuable as touristic spectacles. City locations, houses, squares, interiors, gardens, parks may and do get colored, reinterpreted, misunderstood, appreciated, esteemed differently, etc. in terms of the novel they play important roles instead of their architectural, artistic, historical etc. meaning.

What happens to a building if it gets into a novel as the material frame of the narration? Is it abstracted? If yes, in what mode? I think we can state if a concrete urban location, e.g. a house becomes an element of a fiction the reality of the building definitely gets lost and the semantic value will equal to any imaginary place. The difference between a concrete and an imaginary building is not in between real and non-real, but between the meaningful layers added to them. A real historical building will always carry semantic burdens it has gained outside the novel in a hermeneutic sense. We can, then, state any urban location that play a role in a novel will become fictitious and will cease to exist as building not only because it has turned into text, but also because the realm of reality has turned into some other entity. What happens to the building if it gets out from the novel and starts an own life as tourism spectacle? There are numerous buildings, urban spaces, etc. that are visited not because of any historical value, not because of the architectural design or artistic decoration, but only because they played some important role in a cultic novel.

**Assumptions**

In our research through interviews, internet blogs, home pages, the TripAdvisor and FaceBook comments three literary city tour locations were examined:
Bloomsday tours in Dublin after James Joyce’s *Ulysses*, Bulgakov city tour in Moscow after Bulgakov’s *Master and Margarita*, and Angels and Demons city tours in Rome. Whereas Joyce tours and Bulgakov tours can mostly be linked to age groups above 35, the Angels and Demons tour attract typically young people under 35 whereas many visitors were above this age. There are very few Hungarian visitors among Ulysses and Bulgakov city tourists whereas the Angels and Demons tours are popular among Hungarian young people. Since financial factor is basic and since traditionally Dublin and Moscow have never been typical destinations for Hungarian people anyway (for reasons not to be analyzed here) characteristics to be investigated here are to be related mostly to visitors from Western Europe. Both the *Ulysses* and the *Master and Margarita* are especially interesting for local people, whereas the *Ulysses* has traditionally been a basic book for the English and for students and scholars of English studies all over the world since it has been an important element of literature curriculum. Because of the narrow possibilities here we cannot go into details concerning the questions but we can state three exciting points were possible to fix:

1.) Firstly, that in most cases the visitors have not read and will never read the novel, they are not interested in the literary piece of art (it is extremely exciting to put the question: what are they interested in then?)

2.) Although it seems an absolute blasphemy to touch literature like this we dare to state that those famous novels induce novel city tourism that contain many scenes of the plot and where there is a permanent motion (wandering, walking, travelling from place to place as an intrinsic element of the novel) and the scenes of the novel are located in a relatively narrow circle like a city and the close vicinity of it. The novel gives a possibility to visualize the narration as a map, i.e. the book may have a ‘topographic’ reading. And finally that:

3.) There is definitely no value aspect in why a novel becomes cultic and why it induces city tourism. Value here is meant in the traditional elitist academic meaning, which of course can on the spot be questioned.

To summarize the above listed ideas we can say the original city becomes abstracted in the novel losing its reality value to gain a fictitious one. When the novel locations get out from the novel and get back to the original places these places are no longer the same at least for those who visit it only because of the novel. In my interviews I often heard ‘I wanted to *feel* participation in the novel.’ Why does anyone wish to participate in a novel? What need and experience is it? The buildings and other locations definitely lose something and gain something. What they gain is a *feeling*, an atmosphere, a *milieu* close to the traditional meaning of *genius loci*. 
The phenomenology of architecture

Christian Norberg-Schulz claims although 'in modern society attention has almost exclusively been concentrated on the 'practical' function of orientation, whereas identification has been left to chance (Norberg-Schulz, 1980, 21) By identification he means to 'become friends with a particular environment'. The consumption of architecture as literary cultic places filtered out from a novel seems to be one of the very strong identifications a modern or postmodern visitor of the place will do when 'consuming' the sight. The tourist has always done so especially in the he moments of becoming a pilgrim. The 'toured place' (Belhassen, 2008) can spontaneously turn into a sacred place sanctified by the sacred person or the sacred book. In this way we can say no matter how much modern and postmodern architecture has focused on practicality identification processes have always been able to give buildings and urban locations specific characters and feelings. The place is conceived as totality not so much or not only in the architectural, but also in the psychological sense. The place, the locus, the lieu exceeds the concrete meaning by which the place is represented as an atmosphere, character or phenomenon. Hence the place is an overall phenomenon that cannot be reduced to its architectural and spatial relations, Norberg Schulz claims (Rigó, 2005).

The lieu is colored by or itself becomes the carrier of a milieu. The milieu is conceived, captured and experienced by the tourist perceiving the sight as a dreamscape (Basu, 2013,116 ) fulfilling his wished expectations in terms of pilgrim cognition (Belhassen, 2008 ). Jakle claims the best person to experience and express the genius loci is not the resident, but the tourist, for tourism involves the deliberate searching out of place experience’(Jakle,1987). The literary visitors come with 'the customary paraphernalia of tourism’ but some elements of their behavior 'make sense only if we assume that as a whole it was patterned whether they were aware of it or not, on religious pilgrimage’ (Dávidházi, 35)

Milieux de mémoire creating 'memory scapes' by experiencing 'dreamscapes’?

Dreamscapes may be conceived as a result of a memory making process. I think we can say the pilgrim potential of the tourist pre-creates memories, what is more, he often arrives to the place with concrete memory creating facilities both in the concrete sense (photo machine) and in the abstract sense that he has got precise imaginations about what he wishes to see and above all to feel. Cultural memoryscapes accommodate not only to different sites and social frameworks of memory, but also what may be called as 'regimes of memory' (Radstone and Hodkin, 2003). David Lowenthal claimed 'the locus of memory lies more readily in place than in time’ (1997, 180). From Halbwachs’ basic notion of spatial frameworks ’of memory (1941) through Yates’ exploration of the
architectural ‘arts of memory’ (1966) to Nora’s highly influential project charting the ‘lieux de mémoire’ the relationship between ‘mental spaces’ of memory and the material surrounding has become dominant theme in memory studies (Connerton, 1989, Scama, 1995). Après Nora the concept of the site of memory has become the dominant metaphor for exploring cultural memory. To get closer to the phenomenon and to better understand the experience of the visitor whether he is either a tourist or a pilgrim Halbwachs’ (and Assmann’s) cultural memory theory (easily paralleled with Moscovici’s ‘social representation’ theory (László, 1999) seem to be an acceptable framework for our studies. Halbwachs claimed: Any truth should take the form of a particular, concrete event, person ‘or space so as to be preserved in collective memory’ (Collective memory 151). Both Habwachs and Moscovici claim psychological processes turn these into experience and memory.

**Tourist’s experience - tourist gaze**

The city is once abstracted when it becomes part of (or gets into) the novel, and further abstracted when it gets out of, saturated by, and filtered through the novel to become a spectacle of cultic city tours. The real location is abstracted by and in the work of art, but, when the novel settings are turned back into the original sites by re-mapping forces of the sightseeing tours. The city locations lose their original meaning and gain double abstraction. Using the mathematical concept we can say the city is squared in the sense of semantics. The question is whether this abstraction is the square or rather the square root of the ‘city’. More precisely is it more or is it less? Do tourist see the ‘real’ building or a dreamscape produced by the novel?

**City (abstraction) novel (abstraction) city (filtered through the novel) — city tour**

If the city is given a meaning, or, rather a feeling by the novel what is the experience of the tourist? What does he look for? What does he wish to get and experience? The interviews show in most cases not any elements of literature, but rather some personal relationship and involvement in something labelled as important and famous because cultic. The behavior operating here is governed by religious mechanism with its special rites and language (Dávidházi, 1994, 39) The experience is not void of psychological content, i.e. of a religious mode in the psychological sense. The tourist may become emotional, he may cry, so a definitely elevated, sometimes even cathartic experience may take place. This is how the tourist may turn into a pilgrim and in the same way the souvenir bought at the ‘shrine’ may become a ‘relic’.

The analysis of the extent to which every souvenir has got the potential to become a relic or whether souvenirs are produced with an innate relic-making intention exceeds the scope of this study. However we may assert that the tourist
may transform into a pilgrim and the pilgrim ‘dormant in many tourists’ (Dávidházi, 1994, 41) may be resuscitated even if only for a few seconds. The feeling of recognition or the experience of witnessing and testimony may take place several times during the travel bringing together with it an emotional state of mind. Equally, the pilgrim is often functionally a tourist. Besides his elevated state he needs accommodation, he has to eat, he spends money. This evident point has been fully exploited by pilgrim tourism and as a result, pilgrimage is and has been not only a religious activity but an important trigger of economy from the earliest ages.

One of the discourses on the tourist gaze (Urry, 2001) is the question of authenticity. Peter. D. Osborne distinguishes between the ‘authentic’ and the ‘pseudo’ experience, and he suggests the search for both is characteristic of tourists activities. It is not always possible he claims to make the difference between the two while the same tourist might be attracted by both (Osborne 2000, 73). Urry says the tourist gaze as a postmodern phenomenon does not separate the authentic and inauthentic but both are valid for the tourist: a historic place as much as the Disney World, and the post-tourist is aware of the fact he consumes pseudo-attraction (Urry, 1990, 100)

Accepting the notion of pseudo-attraction we think in the case of our study real value attractions function as pseudo attractions and we believe the tourist often cannot make the difference because his evaluation does not move in the framework of rational judgement. In the image making process of the tourist photos and their appearances on the social media are of special importance: ‘photography and tourism work as meta systems which permit us to transform something experienced into something contemplated, consumed and personal’ (MacCannel 1976 quoted in Osborne 2000,75).

**Joyce tours in Dublin, Bulgakov tours in Moscow and Angels and Demons tours in Rome**

My ongoing research investigates tourist of Dublin James Joyce city tours (Bloomsday tours), of Bulgakov city tours in Moscow and of Angels and Demons city tours in Rome. On the basis of some examples I would like to answer the three points of my assumptions above

1. The tourists according to the interviews and blogs analyzed in my research most often have not read the novel and to the question whether they wished to read it in the future the most frequent answer was ‘perhaps’, which means they do not approach the scenes as additions to literature. To the question whether the building meant anything for them in terms of architecture the answer was either uncertain or negative. Actually they did not see the point in these questions saying they were there because of the novel scene which of course was not an answer in the strict sense but tautology. The imagination for them was burdened
with the totality and unquestionable character of cultic behavior. This approach is especially tangible in cases of buildings: very often the houses visited because of the novel are disinteresting and have no special character, often very typical for the age and time they were built and carry no special architectural value. We can say there is not much to see on them. (Lime Street, Old doorway of Westland Roe Post Office, Cumberland street, Sweeny’s Chemist, Paddy Dignam’s House in Dublin). On the contrary in some cases the building is very special and is a piece of architecture of outstanding value as in the case of the clinic of Master and Margarita which most obviously was inspired by the Khmini City hospital (where even Lenin was cured) built in 1907 originally as a dacha for Sergei Pavlovich Patrikeev a honorary curator for Czar Alexander School and was designed by the famous modern architect Franz Osipovich Shekhtel (1859-0926) who also designed the Moscow Art Theatre. It strengthens our point that aesthetic value counts little: exceptional and ordinary pieces of architecture are brought to common denominator for the literature city tour tourist proving it is not only not literature they look for but not even architecture.

2. What innate potential makes certain novels become ‘prey’ for tourist? In all the tree novels there is an intensive mobility of the protagonists: they permanently change places, they are moving from place to place giving a special dynamics to the narrative. These motions are of course to be interpreted symbolically and metaphorically in literature studies approaches (in Joyce’s novel Bloom’s stations relate to Odysseus’ wanderings whereas in Bulgakov the plots of the certain scenes are over toned with connotations of Heaven and Hell). The tourists according to the interviews most often have not read the novel and they do not know about and are not interested in the academic readings, but still follow the route of the city tour organized for them which means their interest is to be looked for elsewhere. Their expectative interest determines their experience as well which has got nothing to do with academic readings of either literature or architecture, but can only be understood on the terrains of psychology. This interest is neither better nor worse than educated approaches since culture is not to be understood only as high culture but as popular culture as well. Bloomsday ritual in Dublin (after the name of the protagonist Leopold Bloom an unsuccessful advertisement canvasser and with a humorous reference to Doomsday (Dies Irae) is based on the idea that the plot of the novel takes place on one day (16th June 1904). Concrete time references we may add also tend to enhance tourism as tangible issues to capture. Bloomsday started as a joke in 1954 and has become ’an act not merely a study of homage, but in effect a sort of pilgrimage’ (Takács, 1994, 249) Ulysses is well known for the referential interpretation of Homer’s Odyssey. Odysseus’s travels are a par excellence metaphor for travel, motion and mobility for classical European tradition. Bloom is an ironic equivalent of Odysseus in Joyce’s modern fiction.
(which in fact is ‘The Great Modern Fiction’ not void of cultic overtones) for all scholars of English literature. The contemporary tourist who follows the stations of any Ulysses city tours may be the postmodern Odysseus with another twist of irony and meaning. This problem takes us to the third question of value.

3. That academic or educated value is not the motivation for literature city tourism the best proof is the success of Angels and Demons city tours in Rome. Dan Brown’s novel is everything but not high literature and even as pulp fiction it cannot be rated among the best ones. In this case the situation is of course is more complicated because a blockbuster movie came out produced in 2006 directed by Ron Howard starring Tom Hanks The Angels and Demons phenomenon should not only be analyzed as literature tourism but as film tourism to be paralleled with other movies produced on the basis of a ’sacred book’ like Harry Potter or The Lord of the Rings. The fact that a pulp fiction can create as intensive a literature city tourism as cultic novels of modernism shows the most how much this motivation is not linked to what is claims to be about: literature. Pulp fictions can any time become cult fiction.

In the case of Angels and Demons another huge problem raises: architecture and art that play an intensive part in the novel are the peaks of Rome’s monuments having been commented on by historians of art and architecture and having been visited and considered by all the so-called elite intellectual people since they were created. It is a huge question whether the ’consumption’ of Rome through the book worth’s the same as the interpretation of those buildings and sculpture at a ’face value’. Is this kind of interpretation just another way of understanding culture and cultural tourism?

Summary

Without touching directly the two thousand year long debate concerning the nature of the work of art, of value, of where the interpretation of the real meaning in the triangular interrelation of the author, the audience and the work of art is we can say marginally we have done so. The most important thing we can state is that the answer to what motivations induce and along what elaboration processes the literary tourists’(and in the broad sense all tourists’) memory is determined when creating a so-called authentic experience the major factor is imagination, fictitiousness and often cultic processes with ’quasi-religious behavior.’ Caren Kaplan says travel is a mythologized narration of displacement (1996). If we accept the landscape is consumed as a dreamscape and is elaborated as memory scape it means authenticity is an imaginative product. The theoretical question is then: what do we sell and buy?
Experience is evidently emotion specific and emotions have important impacts on cognitive organizations: on attention, on memory and on thinking. Linton proved in his research (1980) that events possible to recall well are the unique and characteristic ones. Already William James claimed in his psychology study book (1890): ’My experience is something I can pay attention to.’ Quasi-religious experiences are definitely unique and characteristic by nature: the intensity of emotions related to them seems to (pre)determine cognition, experience and memory as well.

Authenticity is a pseudo-reality for those who consume cultic places and the experience of the locations become independent of reality in the everyday sense. This phenomenon seems easier to capture if the spot of cultic approach visited by thousands of tourists every year is a natural place like Bella’s cliff from Twilight interesting only because of the film, Loch Ness which is visited mainly because of the monster or the Equator which is a theoretical line rather than a real locus. The visitors in these cases are in a place which is not what it is, which in a sense does not exist only in terms of a very special interest. But in cases of buildings or city locations visited because of a novel the place seems ’more’ real since it is a built object definitely and tangibly existing. It is not easy to understand that the reality even of built objects may be as imaginary as that of natural sites.

The aim of this study was to prove that in case of literary city tours the experience of the visitor is a very special cognitive structure that while mutually ’corrupting’ literature by means of architecture and architecture by means of literature in a psychological process of quasi-religious cognition results in a special experience phenomenon in terms of imaginary reality and re-interprets literature through architecture and architecture through literature The reality of the authentic experience in this case is unreality itself.

References


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Place of modern devices in museums, through the case study of the Virtual Archaeological Museum of Herculaneum

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The author examines the trends that led to the regular use of multimedia installation and modern devices in museums on the basis of New Museology. It introduces the development process from imaging technologies to augmented reality and their use in virtual museums. The article ends up with the case study of the Virtual Archaeological Museum of Herculaneum, focusing on the circumstances leading to its construction and the modern technological solutions used in the museum.

Introduction

The environment of museums has been changed since the late 20th century, as visitor expectations nowadays are different from those of the previous generations. Management and curators have been forced to change their attitude and standards, as the perception of museums among visitors has become fairly negative. Museums found it difficult to compete with other tourism attractions, their image of being boring and dusty places (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett 1998) had to be changed. “Dead’ displays, static exhibitions have to be revitalized to become “living’ ones (Urry 1990). Museums had to change their focus, according to the interest of visitors, the needs of the contemporary society and therefore focus more on the people themselves, than on artifacts as part of collections (Simpson 1996). International Council of Museums (ICOM) in 2007 defined “A museum is a non-profit, permanent institution in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity and its environment for the purposes of education, study and enjoyment’. Edutainment is in central focus, as a successful method of information transmission. ICOM has completed its statement with the following: “The definition of a museum has evolved, in line with developments in society’. The previous trends lead to the theory of New Museology under the scope of which museums re-examine the way they operate in all levels, by redefining their relationship with people and communities (McCall, Gray 2014).
Trends leading to virtualization

Tourists in general wish to get away from their daily life temporarily and explore something adventurous, foreign, ancient, or spectacular. Tourism establishments make it their business to shape, package, and sell such experiences, they focus their attention on the creation of the touristic experience (Sternberg 1997). Tourists do not seek for a single product any more, but they wish to live through a complex experience during their trips.

Info Communication Technology (ICT), such as multimedia installations, mobile applications provide special attraction to the experience-focused tourism demand. They are able to complete the tangible attractions, or even turning the intangible values into tangible ones. These modern technologies might increase the popularity of the classic cultural attractions, such as museums, but they can constitute a modern attraction on their own. ICT is a driving force for innovation in tourism fields, which is very much needed in the revitalizing of museums. These institutions focus recently increasing efforts on utilizing the opportunities in it, as evidence is emerging that ICT can improve understanding, attraction and accessibly for tourists (Hjalager 2010).

In museums visitors can meet several dynamic devices (e.g. audio-video and hands-on instruments, interactive maps, etc.), which have completed or substituted classical static instruments (scale-models, photos, descriptions) in the last decades. For museums and of course for other heritage attractions it means a serious challenge to attract the potential 21st century technology-focused visitors. People of this era are subjected to a non-stop supply of information, effects, offers, and moreover within easy reach their smart devices (phones, tablets) are always available. Tourism attractions, such as museums face a non-stop competitor in the pocket of visitors, which might be taken in hand as soon as the level of interest decreases during an exhibition. Anything in a museum that is less fascinating than the internet itself might be skipped over by visitors, who get connected to their virtual world, check their emails, post on Facebook, read news, watch videos within seconds instead. This process does not involve only generations X, Y, Z, but since former generations are overwhelmed by the same devices, every-day supply and whirl of information therefore a certain stimulus threshold must be reached in their case as well.

A certain level of stimulus threshold is set by the every-day life of visitors, who are interconnected 24 hours a day. They are surrounded by audio-video devices, providing a media content, that pushes the limits continuously. Services in general provide complete experience, having an effect on as many human senses as possible.

In general museum management (sales and promotion) face the hurdles of the same kind namely tourism demand seems to be weaker towards the classical
cultural values, on the other hand sensibility towards technological innovations, cultural differences and extremities are much stronger. Different dynamic devices and multiple interpretation opportunities based on several instruments and methods will likely be basic requirements to attract visitors efficiently. For each target group different amount and quality of information is needed, they interpret the information in different ways. To deliver the message of an exhibition varied methods should be used based on the attributes and needs of these groups. Visitors bring a multiplicity of interpretations to the reading of displays and the fact that artifacts may be subject to multiple interpretations has important implications for the way museums think about and present themselves (Goulding 2000).

At the same time concentration capacity decreases, visitors are able to focus on the same content and on the whole attraction for a shorter period of time. Quick scanning and effective filtering of the information by visitors are common. Effective information transmission, supported by different interpretation methods is crucial in terms of museums’ educational function. Representatives of slow tourism movement aim to focus on relieving more time for leisure, hospitality and the sense of the place contrary to mass tourism (Woehler 2004). Tourists rush through exhibitions as well many times, trying to utilize day of a city break as much as possible. An important aim is to make people consume slower and take their time to enjoy tourism services, such as guided tours, museum visits.

It is also of utmost importance to provide the possibility for each visitor to select the appropriate level of information during an exhibition or a tourism program. On the basis of the different target groups’ needs, museums can provide information for children, students, adults, researchers among others. With the help of the digital devices, huge databases can be at disposal in a cost-efficient way, and target groups can filter the amount and quality of information needed.

The experience-focused tourism is present at each segment of the demand, the number of education-motivated tourists decrease, though cultural motivation as a supplementary factor has an important role in terms of travels. In 2011, 27% of the EU citizens were affected in their choice of destination by a cultural heritage attraction, and 8% of them had cultural experience as a main motivation during their vacation.¹

Modern devices contribute to improving visitor experience in museums in different ways. To different target groups the possibility is given to choose the amount and quality of information they are in need. On a digital device a well-structured, huge database can be built up efficiently, which might be searched based on the visitors’ interest. It can also be completed with further data and

¹ Flash Eurobarometer, 2011
uploaded to the website of the museum, which might be the start of the development of a virtual museum. Structuring information in accordance with the visitors’ needs is important for targeting their demand. It can be easily managed with the help of these devices, since they can choose themselves, and while large amount of data can be stored at the same place without any additional costs. However structuring information to meet different needs embraces long and serious work. At the same time in terms of cost-efficiency the question arises, whether it is worth considering all target groups or following marketing principles focusing on some definite groups.

Devices might be attractive in some cases by themselves for a certain time-scale. Nowadays the opportunity to try Google Glass or Oculus Rift\(^2\) attracts visitors to exhibitions on their own, just to experience something new. It is a matter of fact that technology is advancing very fast, thus for a reasonable time-scale museums cannot rely on the pure technological interest only. It is well known that museums struggle with financial resources and in lack of them there might be no or limited further investment to follow up the state of the art technology.

The use of 3D reconstruction and other tools help visitors imagine the past, buildings, and lifestyle among others. It might be a contradictory fact that this leads to less active users’ imagination, like movies make people lazy, not using their creativity, accepting ready images contrary to reading a book. Although, other methods and tools provide similar help (e.g. organized plays, scenes in an authentic park, village), but the digital world leave less freedom for imagination, therefore it might be avoided in some cases.

**Development of modern devices**

The following appropriate methods and devices facilitate forming of virtual museums, and help the modern presentation of heritage attractions or museum exhibitions (Sylaiou et. al 2009):

- The most significant step in the advancement of multimedia installation used in museums was the development of imaging technologies and image formats while improving resolution, size, storage and file forwarding possibilities. Exhibitions are often followed by the presentation of 360° panorama pictures and their insertion to their websites. They are usually completed by further multimedia devices and audio-visual materials.
- Web3D exhibitions have been spread as a result of speeding-up World Wide Web and the improvement of 3D presentation technology.
- Virtual Reality (VR) is the 3D simulation of the imagined or real environment with the help of digital technology, which can be experienced

\(^2\)Google Glass is a wearable, voice-controlled device that resembles a pair of glasses and displays information directly in the user's field of vision. Oculus Rift is a virtual reality headset that allows users to completely immerse themselves in the virtual world
visually by the consumer and while creating the illusion of reality. Virtual reality can be modeled by a 3D film or animation on a traditional screen, however, cutting edge technologies like 3D glasses, 3D mouse, gloves or positioning system (such as GPS) provide high quality visual support.

- Augmented Reality (AR) is the projection of computer-generated images on the real environment, which can be seen by the user through a screen. The most important feature of AR based devices is the projection of non-existing 3D models on the objects in the real world. Virtual reality changes the world totally around the user, on the other hand the environment in augmented reality exists in real time, but it might be completed, expanded. With the software a chosen 3D model, video or animation can be constructed in both real and virtual environment. Its methodology is based on placing a sign on a specific point of the surroundings, which might be sensed by the camera of a mobile device with software. The previously programmed 3D content would be visible and movable through the camera as the part of the environment.

- Mixed Reality (MR) based devices are the combination of virtual, augmented reality and real environment.

- The name of haptic devices derives from the Greek word ‘haptein’, which means touch. By the help of the device, such as a pair of gloves virtual artifacts might be touched by the visitor, sensing their surface and shape.

- Palm devices have already become common in museums. Through the improvement of mobile devices more and more applications are developed for smartphones and tablets. External positioning system will allow visitors to get information on the relevant spot in the museum.

The development of museums along with the modern technology has led to the basic requirement of constructing well-structured websites with special attention on the available information for different target groups. Online virtual tour, 3D reconstruction of some artifacts, advanced research opportunities for professional visitors or eventually even video games might be attractive on the website, facilitating the intention to visit the real museum. However in some cases the optimal opportunity for a museum is exhibiting its collection online without having physical evidence, for the reason of cost-efficiency or the type of collection, such as intangible heritage.

A virtual museum can be constructed by using some of the above listed multimedia installation as a complementary of an existing museum. According to Sylaiou et. al (2009) it can be a digital collection, as an extension of a physical museum, or it can be completely imaginary. A virtual museum can be a logically related collection of digital objects composed in a variety of media,

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3 AR was first used in football, checking the offside, by projecting the yellow line on the football field.
4 A haptic device, called PHANToM is used in the Interactive Museum of Art in the University of South Carolina.
which has no real place or space. The objects and the related information might even be disseminated all over the world, and can be virtually restructured based on a particular idea (Schweibenz 1998).

The following case study analyses the Virtual Archaeological Museum of Herculaneum in Italy, using a wide range of multimedia installations to provide specific attraction to its visitors.

**Case study of Virtual Archaeological Museum of Herculaneum**

Herculaneum and Pompeii are two of the most well-known historical sites in the Italian region of Campania, famous for being destroyed and buried under 4-6 meters of volcanic ash after the eruption of the Mount Vesuvius in 79 AD. The two cities, their buildings, roads, objects and citizens were naturally conserved for centuries, which made it possible to be rediscovered in the 16th century, presenting the world the detailed example of an ancient Roman culture. Until the 21st century the presentation of the historical sites in both cities confined themselves on the original sites, where visitors walked all around the ruins of the ancient cities, and saw the exhibited remains in different museums.

2008 brought an important turn in the life of Herculaneum, as the Virtual Archaeological Museum of Herculaneum (MAV) was founded through the cooperation of the Municipality of Herculaneum, the Region of Campania and the Province of Naples. The aim was to provide a museum area to set modern installations regarding the historical sites of the Province of Naples, such as Pompeii, Herculaneum, Baia, Stabiae and Capri. The museum development was accomplished in different phases, during the years of 2008, 2011, 2013 and 2014, providing an always renewing environment. The museum was placed in a 5,000 m² large, three floored, reconstructed old school building. The structure recently gives space for a multifunctional, multimedia center with entertainment possibilities and services not only for tourists, but locals as well. The management of the museum, the related cultural and business services (social area, conference/event facilities, media library, research area and multimedia development services) is conducted by the C.I.V.E.S. Foundation.

The ruins of Herculaneum and their presentation in the frame of the virtual museum illustrate perfectly how it is possible to transmit value to museum visitors in accordance with recent expectations. With the modern technical solutions of interpretation it has become possible to address even younger generation, who are hardly receptive to dry historical facts therefore factual knowledge has to be transmitted in an enjoyable form.

Creative interpretation has always been important on these sites, as it is difficult to visitors to imagine ancient life on the currently visible ruins. A popular

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5 *Museo Archeologico Virtuale*
reconstruction method among others were applied in guide books showing the building of today and a folding overlay sketch of an artist’s impression of the building as it was originally. With advanced technology, on the basis of the same simple method, visitor experience is improved by huge screens, detailed images, animated actors and interactive technology.

MAV is an institution where no original artifacts or remains are exhibited; it focuses on the digital reconstruction of the history for this reason only virtual and digital devices are available in the museum. Tourists start their tour by watching a film about the eruption of Vesuvius on a 26 meters long screen, with an immersive 3D projection system up to 240 degrees. MAV presents more than seventy multimedia installations, which bring the archeological heritage into life and help the visitors immerse themselves in history. In 2015 the last part of the development project has been completed. New installations are set up, such as iMAV application for smart devices, iSense installation to make visitors feel the different perfumes and smells of the ancient city or the 3D virtual map of the site. Visitors can observe further and more detailed digital reconstruction of the public area of a Roman city and the internal parts of a typical home, which is completed by the image of original paintings and mosaics with interactive installations and touch technology (visitors can reveal the mosaics as archeologists, by “sweeping away” the volcanic ash).

The digital content and the high-tech instruments have enabled MAV to start a modern marketing activity, by selecting some objects and digital reconstructions of the museum and take an international tour along with them. In other words the museum is able to produce extra income from the temporary exhibitions abroad and at the same time to attract potential tourists to the region of Campania by promoting its historical sites and its virtual museum. In 2013 a 6 months long exhibition was hosted by the British Museum in London, and was attended by 417,000 visitors. Until 2015 other temporary exhibitions were organized in Madrid and Hamburg. In the future the management of MAV is heading towards the East, and takes its exhibition to Japan as well.

MAV is located in the neighborhood of the ruins of Herculaneum, 17 km away from the more popular site of Pompeii. The visitor number of the latter in 2014 was more than 2.6 million, whereas in Herculaneum it was about 380,000. The less visited site therefore has a chance for development, as it presents the digital reconstruction for both archeological tourism attractions. The museum might be attractive for all curious tourists regardless which historical site they have visited previously. MAV has contributed to the significant increase of visitors of

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6 3D reconstructions, Multisensory effects, Visitor Tracking, Interactive interfaces, Localized audio, Multimedia tables, Touch screen, Virtual books, Holograms, Reproductions of findings, Cave immersive, Environmental effects, Fog Screen, Synchronized multi-projections, Hypersonic Sound, Hologram Mirage 3D
the ruins, as 1. figure shows below. The annual number of museum visitors reaches 70,000, and has been showing a growing tendency in the ruin area as well, increasing from about 264,000 visitors to 380,000 since the year of foundation, 2008. The development of MAV therefore can be considered as a successful example, representing the possibilities for the use of multimedia installations in the presentation of archeological sites.

![Number of visitors](image)

1. figure Visitor numbers at the Ruins of Herculaneum and at MAV (2000-2014)

Among the future plans a pavilion is to set up as part of MAV on the historical site of Pompeii, so that it allows ruins’ visitors to enjoy some of the multimedia installations. This exhibition would serve as a promotion of MAV itself and the ruins of Herculaneum as well. There is a wide scale of cooperation and development opportunity involving the two ruined areas and MAV at the same time, such as combined tickets, discounts, aligned programs, complex packages or harmonized feedback systems.

**Challenging issues**

It has always been subject to a serious debate if it is worth investing in the digital reconstruction instead of the physical conservation of the site itself. On the other hand the development of the 3D reconstruction might help the conservation more than before, since it enables the very ones imagine and understand the life of an ancient Roman city that have not been able to do so previously.

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7 *Maintained by the Superintendence for the Archaeological Heritage of Naples and Pompeii*
It is a question whether the use of digital devices would substitute completely
the traditional methods. Dressing-up, solving a quiz, taking copies of artifacts
into ones hand among others might be cheaper and sometimes even more
enjoyable for visitors, in terms of involvement. Overloading an exhibition with
these devices might be reasonless or risky to visitor experience as well. It can be
too disturbing for certain groups and could be seen as a repository of multimedia
devices. On the other hand for generations Y and Z the environment might just
be perfect, raising the interest during the whole visit. Setting the right scale of
modern and traditional devices should always be the subject to the expectations
and demand of the target group.

In some cases the question of exhibiting original artifacts at all might arise,
supposing that in a virtual museum, digital devices can be sufficient on their
own. In case of MAV as it is located in the proximity of the ruins, the possibility
to visit both places right after each other provides an optimal solution to this
problem. However, total digitalization might be also questionable in terms of
fast technological advancement. Devices are becoming obsolete in a short period
of time therefore museums can become insignificant unless they possess long-
lasting values. MAV’s future plan might cure the latter issue, as some of the
digital devices are likely to be placed among the ruins, where visitors can
observe the reconstruction of the past right in the middle of the site. Original
artifacts will always have an appeal for visitors, among which they can sense
thousands of years’ history. To feel the original surface of a wall, to imagine that
historical figures have been walking on those streets and taken the tools in their
hands will likely remain an ever-lasting attraction.

**Summary**

The multimedia installation developed in MAV provides an exceptional
opportunity for visitors to imagine the life of ancient Roman cities. Use of 3D
reconstruction, multisensory effects, touch screens, interactive devices among
others enables visitors to immerse in history easier than ever before. The
proximity of the ruins of Herculaneum ensures the full experience, as after
visiting the virtual museum, one can wonder around the historical site observing
the remains in their original environment. The increasing growth of last years’
visitor number both in the ruin area and the virtual museum justifies the
development of such modern tourism attractions related to historical and cultural
heritage.

As a conclusion one can observe the efforts taken by museums towards
attracting visitors by completing their exhibitions with modern devices. These
installations help them engage the attention of recent generations who are used
to be connected to the virtual world and are surrounded by information, offers
impulses 24 hours a day. Revitalizing museums is a serious challenge, but has to
be in focus continuously for enabling them to compete successfully for visitors with other attractions.

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Metropolitan development and responsible tourism –
the case of Italian Mygrantour

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In the last two decades, a variety of labels have been introduced to debate forms of tourism that are opposite to mainstream tourism. Often, these “alternative” products and practices are also considered socially beneficial to local communities and apt to provide economic benefits in deprived areas. This paper investigates the case study of Mygrantour, a form of responsible tourism that approaches foreign communities rooted in the main Italian cities. Mygrantour offers half-day trips in neighbourhoods that are not generally explored through mainstream tourism itineraries. By exploring “ethnic diversity”, tourists can “tour the world” in a day accompanied by a migrant guide in the name of intercultural exchange. Aim of this paper is twofold: on one level, it will consider the capacity building of Mygrantour not only in neighbourhoods within certain metropolitan areas, but also in networking with other cities at national and international level. On a second level, the paper will analyse the metropolitan counter-hierarchy that Mygrantour fosters by re-envisioning core-periphery dialectics.

1. Introduction

In the “era of migration” (Castels and Miller 2009) and globalisation (Giddens 1990, Sassen 1991) cities and their spaces are evolving to meet the needs of changing urban contexts. On the one hand, they are becoming more aesthetically pleasing in order to develop competitively on an international level; yet, cities are also becoming increasingly socially and culturally complex due to migration, population growth and tourism. Accordingly, there has, and will continue to be an increased creation of new narratives, new spatial signifiers and symbolic spaces within cityscapes (Georgiou 2011).

In this context, ethnic urban spaces can be conceptualised also as tourist spaces, often viewed as places of leisure and consumption. This process is inherently divisive: humanities scholars (Lin 1998, Shaw et al. 2004; Rath 2007; Aitken and Hall 2010, Aytar and Rath 2012; Diekmann and Smith 2015) have observed a series of negative impacts, such as gentrification, extreme commodification, social conflicts and crystallisation of urban and social spaces. Yet, scholars have also identified the possibility to generate positive processes and practices,
particularly in the case of responsible tourism\(^1\). According to this vision, tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods could facilitate social integration\(^2\), as well as the creation of new social networks and possibilities for exchanging intercultural dialogue. Furthermore, on a territorial level, it could re-brand the neighbourhood image and generate processes of territorial de-hierarchisation, as illustrated in the case studies below.

According to this debate, the paper will consider the role of tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods for the creation of an intercultural, multi-level network and the stimulation of new urban tourist flows in marginalised and deprived areas. In accordance with this perspective, ethnic tourism can represent a positive example of “globalization from below” (Falk 1997), able to attract visitors, investments and generate advantageous socio-economic development. The paper will conclude with a final discussion of the issues arising from the diffusion of the new cultural practice of tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods.

**Tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods: new protagonists, new narratives?**

Between the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century Euro-American metropolises started to promote their attractiveness through ethnic, religious and cultural diversity. An example is New York City, which built its “melting pot” tourist image on ethnic neighbourhoods such as Little Italy, Little Odessa and Little India. Other examples include the Latin Quarter in Paris with its Bohemian aesthetic and feel, as well as Chinatown in San Francisco, which became the reference model for other Chinese quarters developed all over the world after the crisis of the Qing’s Empire (Santos et al. 2008). Thus, Chinatown’s can be considered the most tangible symbol of the ethnic neighbourhood as a place of leisure and consumption\(^3\).

Over the last two decades, European Mediterranean cities have also tried to attract tourists in ethnic neighbourhoods: the Raval in Barcelona, the Panier in Marseilles and the Esquilino in Rome are only few examples of this growing phenomenon (Aytar and Rath 2012). A double motivation lies at the basis of these processes: on the one hand urban policies are examining the intercultural dimension of cities as a potential force for social, economic and cultural enhancement (Wood and Landry 2007); on the other hand, contemporary tourists


\(^{2}\) In the perspective of this paper the concept of social integration is associated to the definition of Ambrosini (2013). Hence, according to the author, integration is a multidimensional and non-evolutionistic process that has a local and contextual nature and implies the receiving society and public institutions on different levels.

\(^{3}\) In 1938 Vancouver officially opened its Chinatown to tourists and in 1992 New York created its Chinatown Tourism Council in order to promote tourism in these urban spaces (Lin 1998).
are changing their leisure behaviours. The phenomenon of ‘slow tourism’ is best representative of this idea, as it highlights a practice that emphasises the possibility to reach new relations with the anthropological space (Nocifora 2011). Discussing these new consumption behaviours, Urbain (2002) suggests the term “interstitial tourism”, which describes a tourist practice that reinvents the “tourist gaze” (Urry 2002) within daily rituals.

But, how can we define tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods? What are its main dimensions and characteristics? Actually, ‘studies on how the urban tourist industry articulates with immigration or cultural diversity in advanced Western economies are still on the ground’ (Rath 2007, XVI). Notwithstanding, we can define this tourist experience as a set of heterogeneous cultural practices that take place in neighbourhoods where the migrant presence can be experienced daily. The main focus is therefore on the complexity of these ‘ethnoscapes’ (Appadurai 1996), semantically territorialised, which attract the tourist gaze thanks to a series of material and immaterial elements. It is important to remember however those tourist configurations can be very different, depending on the social cultural and economic variables of the specific urban space.

Hall and Rath (2007, 16-19) identify eight essential and interrelated preconditions that should be taken into account in order to promote tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods:
- Political regulation and structure: urban policies should promote intercultural complexity as a positive dimension of the urban space, including them in urban and regional development plans. The role of migrants in attracting tourists and in creating ‘vibrant local culture’ (Zukin 1995) should be understood as an economic resource for cities.
- Growth coalitions: these coalitions, composed of different public and private subjects, represent an essential starting point to develop “place branding” mechanisms, with the aim to enhance the value of intercultural resources from a touristic viewpoint;
- Spatial confinement: it is necessary that territorial promotion be related to a specific urban area, characterised by a large number of migrants and related associations;
- Immigrant entrepreneurship: there should be a proliferation of shops (e.g.: restaurants, cafés, butchers, bakeries, clothing stores) that lend the neighbourhood its ethnic flavour and stimulate street life;
- Ethnic infrastructure: migrant communities will need to be supportive, in order to develop a long-term commodification of the ethnic neighbourhood and to avoid a “top-down” approach;
- Accessibility and Safety: alleviating the negative image of the neighbourhood often promoted by media and various political groups;
- Target marketing: migrants should be considered by policymakers and by place promoters to be attractive elements for place-branding mechanisms.
As a result, the underlying assumptions are twofold. Firstly, there should be a substantial presence of migrants who ought to be included in decision-making processes linked to place promotion. Secondly, there should be a willingness of members of the critical infrastructure to enhance the value of urban complexity as a social and economic resource.

**Intercultural networking as analytical category**

In the last few decades many studies have suggested the importance of the concept of networking and it is nowadays widely used by a series of different branches of knowledge such as marketing, regional development, sociology and human geography. According to these studies, one of the main characteristics of the network is the possibility to generate processes of “collective learning”, central to the development of successful cultural and social milieus (Camagni 1991). These kinds of processes derive from the possibility to take part in actions that generate mutual exchange of knowledge and skills. However, the growing importance of ethnic or cultural differences within social contexts is making the idea of networking more complex. Hence, this paper will examine the intercultural dimension of the network in a globalised and interconnected world.

The concept of intercultural networking has a dual meaning: on the one hand it refers to a network of different subjects that deals diversely with intercultural topics (e.g. some universities and other public entities that study urban policy and its relationship to ethnic complexity); on the other hand it indicates a network made up of subjects that are characterised by a high level of inner interculturalism (e.g. migrant associations that form their own network). These concepts can be examined separately or as mutually supportive theories, as they often exist and function within the same system.

Intercultural networking considers the concept of interculturalism as a further development of the term multiculturalism, which places more emphasis on the relational dimension of social agency and exchange (Mantovani 2010). By increasing the intercultural dimension of a network, it is possible to generate innovative intercultural dialogue and broaden individuals’ global perspectives. This social practice can take place in diverse milieus (e.g. public spaces, workplaces and classrooms). If viewed in the context of the urban space, it can have positive impacts such as increased safety and walkability within urban neighbourhoods (Jacobs 1965).

It is therefore necessary to reconsider the analytical category of networking in order to emphasise the role of the intercultural dimension within relational contexts. As a result, this paper identifies the importance of generating innovation through a mutual and intercultural dialogue, by achieving hybrid outcomes and by broadening one’s own perceptive boundaries. The idea is
perfectly summarised by Johannson (in Wood and Landry 2007, 221) when he states ‘diverse teams have a greater chance of coming up with unique ideas as they allow different viewpoints, approaches, and frames of mind to emerge...People who have experienced the innovative power of diverse teams tend to do everything they can to encourage them (...) Invariably you find that the best ideas come from the mosaic of players working together in a team on a project. They will come up with an answer that is different from what any one of them would have come up with individually.’

**Italian Mygrantours: a short description**

Whilst nowadays tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods is widespread in many cities in advanced Western economies, the Mygrantour network\(^4\) represents the only well-established case within the Italian landscape. The network draws its origins from a creative writing laboratory that took place in 2007 in the intercultural centre of Turin. The outcome was the book “*Torino è casa nostra: viaggio nella città migrante*” (Turin is our home: a tour in the migrant city). The idea was financed by the programme “Agrobiodiversity, Cultures and Local Development”, promoted by IFAD (The International Fund for Agricultural Development) and supported by Oxfam Italia, ACRA-CCS, and Viaggi Solidali, the tour operator for responsible tourism who first developed the idea. Between 2010 and today in Turin, Milan, Florence and Rome, over 11,000 people, have taken part in these walks (mostly secondary school students, but also curious citizens, tourists, groups and associations). After the success of this first phase of the project, ACRA-CCS and Viaggi Solidali supported the development of a European network of Mygrantours. At the moment, the network proposes a series of urban itineraries accompanied by migrant guides that play the role of mediators between tourists, shopkeepers, restaurateurs, pedestrians and other people they may encounter during the urban walks. According to the website, “the objective is to support the integration of migrant citizens into the nine participating cities, building mutual comprehension and respect. The development of a European network is the means for scaling up the impact of the initiative and guaranteeing the spread of good practice. (...) The idea of this project was also conceived as a way to give an added source of income for disadvantaged people, often from developing countries”. It must be noted that each itinerary represents responsible tourism. Mygrantour tries to reduce the negative impacts by encouraging the active participation of the local community.

\(^4\) [http://www.mygrantour.org/](http://www.mygrantour.org/)
Methodological aspects

The decision to undertake explorative ethnographic research was due to the limited number of studies related to tourism in Italian ethnic neighbourhoods. Hence, the aim was to investigate processes linked to this cultural practice, focusing primarily on the role of Mygrantour in the creation of an intercultural multi-level network. Secondly, it highlights the social and territorial consequences of de-hierarchisation that this tourist experience entails.

In accordance with this aim, semi-structured interviews and overt participant observations were held, in order to better understand the main characteristics of this growing phenomenon and the related ‘shared meanings, purposes, knowledge, understandings, identities - collective and individual - conventions etc.’ (Crossley 2010, 7). The semi-structured interviews have been gathered by focusing on sample units chosen according to three different variables: the variable “experienced” in the case of tourists that took part in these itineraries; the variable “knowledgeable” in the case of the project’s coordinators who created the itineraries, and the variable “both” in the case of the migrant guides, that usually take part in the urban walks and co-create the itineraries.

![Figure 1: Type of sampling used in the research](image)

The Mygrantour network: a multi-level intercultural network

The Mygrantour network includes different subjects (e.g.: tour operators, NGOs, associations, individuals) that operate to develop and promote responsible tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods through urban walks, offering different moments of dialogue and intercultural encounters (e.g.: eating together, sharing experiences, confronting each other). Since 2013 the network has launched the project ‘MygranTour: a European network of migrant driven intercultural routes to understand cultural diversity,’ promoted by Fondazione ACRA-CCS (Milan, Italy), Viaggi Solidali (Turin, Italy), Oxfam Italia (Arezzo, Italy), Marco Polo (Paris, France), Bastina Voyages (Marseille, France), Periferies del Mon (Valencia, Spain), IMVF (Lisbon, Portugal), Renovar la Mouraria (Lisbon,
Portugal), Earth (Belgium) and co-financed by the European Union. In nine cities (Turin, Milan, Genoa, Florence, Rome, Marseille, Paris, Valencia and Lisbon) the partners are organising training courses and research projects on intercultural topics. Furthermore, they are creating new workshops and walks for schools and citizens.

As explained above, this case study examines intercultural networking as both a network of different subjects that deal with intercultural topics, and as a network made up of subjects that are characterised by a high level of inner interculturalism. In this way, each individual can share a collaborative path where it is possible to develop increased intercultural skills and competencies. Furthermore, the partnership represents a multi-level network made up of three different levels of territorial diffusion. The first level refers to the urban territory; this local level includes a series of different subjects like NGOs, associations, public entities, tour operators, migrant guides that create and develop one or more itineraries within the same city. One example is the city of Turin, where it is possible to find three different consolidated itineraries of intercultural urban trekking. The second level refers to the national territory and to the diffusion of these itineraries in different Italian cities. At the moment, the network includes five Italian cities: Turin, Milan, Florence, Rome and Genoa. On a third level, since 2013, the network expanded its international ground and now includes other European cities (Marseilles, Paris, Valencia and Lisbon), which are developing itineraries based on the Italian experience.

The following scheme, created by ViaggiSolidali, represents an example used by the network in order to detail the territorial diffusion of the project. It is composed of different steps that each city within the network has taken into account, whilst considering the specific social, economic, cultural and environmental variables related to the territorial area.

In the primary phase, the main subjects created a territorial team made up of different partners (e.g.: NGOs, associations, universities, tour operators, individuals) interested in the project. The second step refers to the study of information about the role of migration within the specific city, such as the historical impact, number and characteristics of migrants, the identification of the ethnic neighbourhood. Thirdly, it is fundamental to recognise the tourist potentials of the specific area: tourism resources (e.g.: material and immaterial heritage, environmental resources, shopping centres), accommodation and transport (e.g.: hotels, B&Bs, camping, public transport, taxis, airports) and the relations between tourism and the migratory phenomenon. The fourth step pinpoints the importance of identifying the effect of migration on food and agriculture in the specific area. This means the identification and the description of new food products, ethnic restaurants or markets, and the reconstruction of the supply chain.
<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Creation of a territorial team</td>
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<td>2 Infos about the role of migration in the specific city</td>
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<td>3 Analysis of the tourist attractiveness</td>
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<td>4 Effect of migration on food and agriculture</td>
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<td>Explorative observations accompanied by migrants</td>
<td>Quantify/qualify products</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Reconstruction of the supply chain</td>
<td>Interviews to shop keepers, importers etc.</td>
<td>Quantify/qualify products</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Focus groups with migrants, restaurateurs etc.</td>
<td>Quantify/qualify restaurants, markets etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 Effects of migration on non-food products/activities</td>
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<td>Explorative observations accompanied by migrants</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>6 Project feasibility</td>
<td>Analysis of the indicators</td>
<td>Final report</td>
<td>All the previous indicators</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Personal elaboration of Viaggi Solidali project replicability scheme
Nevertheless, it is also necessary to underline the relation between migration and non-food tourist resources (e.g.: other kinds of shops, handmade products, religious places, migrant associations, ‘ethnic’ streets, parks). Obviously, in order to quantify/qualify all these elements, exploratory observations and interviews are required. Finally, the scheme highlights the necessity to create a feasibility study, characterising all the previous indicators and leading to a final report with the related resources, potentials and limits. The following section investigates the role of tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods in facilitating a process of territorial and social de-hierarchisation, according to three different case examples of urban walks within the Mygrantour network.

**Fostering territorial and social de-hierarchisation**

One of the aspects that have been observed through the case study of Italian Mygrantour is the centre-periphery relation, which was analysed in three different Italian cities: Turin, Milan and Florence. In the perspective of the paper, the term periphery does not necessarily correspond to a specific physically defined urban space, but rather to an intersubjective space, socially defined, and often marginalised and stereotyped. As demonstrated in the case studies below, all these spaces are collocated in central urban areas but they are often avoided by Italian residents, characterised by a high level of stigmatisation, crime (actual or perceived) and other kinds of social and economic problems.

In the city of Turin, the Mygrantour itinerary takes place in Porta Palazzo, a central urban area, close to important places like Palazzo Madama (where the first Senate of the Italian Kingdom was located), Piazza Castello, the principal piazza, the Royal Palace and the Royal Gardens. Porta Palazzo is a large piazza that hosts the biggest open air market in Europe, where the itinerary begins. The whole itinerary is developed around the market and includes some interesting places like the Romanian bakery, and the first Italian shop which imported colonial products. Nevertheless, residents often avoid this area as it is associated to fear of being robbed and other perceived risks. The second example is the urban walk developed in Via Padova, in Milan. It is located in a semi-central neighbourhood, not far from the Central Station and Loreto square. As the previous example, it represents an urban area highly stigmatised and associated to crime and social problems (e.g.: street gang violence, robberies and public disorder). The Mygrantour network offers an itinerary with a lot of stops, such as a Peruvian restaurant with a tasting menu, Parco Trotter, an urban park that is now under regeneration and a South American party accessory shop. The final example is an itinerary that takes place near Florence’s central station, Santa Maria Novella, which is ten-minute walk from Santa Maria del Fiore Cathedral and its popular main square. During the itinerary it is possible to visit a Kenyan barber shop, a Florentine carpenter shop and an association that works for
migrant integration within the local community. Despite its centrality, this area is highly marginalised by the residents because of its identity of ‘border place’, perceived as dangerous and ambiguous.

According to respondents and to participant observations, it has been noted that Mygrantour had a central role in fostering a process of social and territorial de-hierarchisation. Indeed, these processes have been facilitating by giving the “Other” the opportunity to narrate her or his daily life and their relations with the urban space. In addition, Mygrantour creates the possibility to generate de-hierarchisation through the reinvention of the tourist gaze within daily rituals. In fact, this kind of tourism can turn the “unusual” into the usual (Urbain 2002) by promoting itineraries off-the-beaten track. In accordance with this aim, the experience focuses on heritage resources, as well as the relations among people (e.g.: between migrants and residents but also between migrants and the urban social and economic space).

The other side of the medal: limits of the tourist approach

As Crouch (1999) acknowledges, the tourist practice itself always involves some kind of encounter with “Otherness”. As has already been noted through a responsible tourism approach it is possible to foster positive processes and practices. Mygrantour represents a form of ‘participatory tourism,’ where “Otherness” is not only gazed upon but becomes an active agent in driving visitors gaze and interaction, avoiding the negative effects of extremely commoditised forms of tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods. Consequently, Mygrantour reworks the idea of “Otherness” in cities, not as something exotic within the city, but as part of the ordinary streetscape. Moreover, it implies new roles in the interaction among social subjects: on the one hand the migrant becomes the guide, the person who knows, narrates and lives in that urban space; on the other hand the citizen turns into the ‘Other’, the person who desires to experience his/her own city.

Although the Mygrantour offers many positive aspects, it is also limited in many ways. First of all Mygrantour is generally attended by small groups of people that are often already interested and active in promoting intercultural values. So far, Mygrantour is not economically sustainable or widely known. In order to increase the project economic infrastructure, it is necessary to create a better dialogue among policymakers, members of the political infrastructure and the subjects included in the Mygrantour network. This leads to a second point: at the moment there is a legal limit to the diffusion and the wider promotion of these urban walks. Indeed, in Italy, a special permission is needed to become a guide. Since many of the Mygrantour guides do not have this permission, the promotion of Mygrantour is limited and promoted nearly exclusively by the subjects involved in the network itself. In other words, tourism work policy may limit the implementation of social projects such as Mygrantour.
Moreover, tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods is often related to negative impacts. Thus, it may be argued that, despite the responsible tourism approach, the case studies represent examples of tourism as an extension of the colonial phenomenon (MacCannell 2001, Mowforth and Munt 2003, Canestrini 2004, Hall and Tucker 2004, Garrone 2007, Sharpley and Telfer 2008). In this case the question is: does this form of tourism represent an effective participation between urban inhabitants and de-hierarchisation among urban neighbourhoods or a post-colonial strategy? The less optimistic prognosis is that tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods always leads to an excessive commodification of the subjects involved; in this perspective commodification is described as “the transformation of a good or service into an exchange relationship. The person producing the good or service loses control of his or her work; the purchaser pays for it according to its market value regardless of its use value (...) critiques of tourism dwell on the manipulation of the consumer and of the resident of the place visited” (Fainstein and Gladstone 1999, 29). Similarly, Conforti (1996) highlights that tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods generates a form of museification of the urban space, in terms of mythical reconstruction. Other authors emphasise the inauthenticity of these places (Collins 2007, Jones and Ram 2007) or the “zooification” of cultures and places (Williams 2008, Freire-Medeiros 2009, Meschkank 2011). A possible answer is given by Spivack in The Post-Colonial Critic (1990), where he introduces the concept of “strategic essentialism”. The author describes it as the cultural reification or simplification of cultures through objects or general communities that symbolise them. According to this perspective, processes of simplification and commodification within the frame of intercultural encounter are inevitable.

Conclusion

This paper presents an explorative analysis of tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods in three different Italian cities through case studies within the Mygrantour network. It examines different social and territorial aspects related to the growing importance of this phenomenon. On the one hand, it uses the analytical category of intercultural networking to describe the multi-level partnership between the subjects involved in the network on a urban, national and international level. On the other hand, it investigates the process of social and territorial de-hierarchisation generated through the offer of itineraries in peripheral and marginalised urban areas, and the narration of “Other” urban geographies and narratives. It also shows how it is necessary to consider the limits of the tourist approach. As a result of the above analysis, the first boundary refers to the necessity to create better ways of interaction between the tourism industry and local policymakers. At the moment, this process is limited by Italian tourism work policies, which require a special permission for tourist guides. Furthermore, this kind of tourism is often considered a form of
contemporary colonialism. However, according to the notion of “strategic essentialism” (Spivak 1990), it is acknowledged that every form of intercultural encounter implies inevitable simplification processes. Hence, in order to avoid an extreme commodification of space and culture, it is necessary to adopt a responsible tourism approach. This approach does not automatically constitute a way to eliminate all the potential negative impacts related to tourism in ethnic neighbourhoods, but could be considered an essential starting point to raise awareness among tourists and tourism operators.

Literature


The philosophical essence of urban culture

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A poem is a condensation of signs and a method characteristic of every human being for investigating a shared reality. Accordingly, a human being also lives and exists poetically in this common world. This being so, the primacy of the mother tongue refers to the lived language, which mediates the possibility for us of carving out our own unique imprint on existence. Similarly, the native land signifies a milieu where a human being takes on a reality amidst other objects, surrounded by them and as one of them. Without a view of the existential, philosophical essentiality of being that is lived poetry, national self-understanding becomes impossible. Likewise, the connection between bygone and presence vanishes: the different generations remain cut off from each other. The individual and shared stories stay muted, untold. Poetry creates harmony between past and present. It engenders an existential consonance where the feeling of rootlessness has melted away. It is as if life has taken a photograph of being, with its dimensions those of humanity, with its essential melodies those of musicality and accord. Where poetry resides, there is no dispute or dissent.

Prologue

A space can open or close. In so doing a space may, through its own opening, close itself. Or, indeed, the reverse is possible: a closed space may appear as an open space. It is here that a person comes face to face with the poetry of lived space. When a particular place feels snug and cozy or like home, the space has allowed that person to step into its essence. Then the person also arrives alongside himself, close to himself. He does not think or feel that he owns the space: his existence is not about owning but about being. When a person then forgets the being way of being, his worldly fulfilment has to do with owning. Simultaneously he becomes a vagrant, a beggar, in the midst of being in the world. Perhaps then he also stops actually being. ¹

Existential imagery

Not all of us are capable of empathetic experience. What has happened to those who are not? Let me tell you. Midsummer night: mid-point of light and teeming life. Deep green, the moment of the zenith, dawn of the world, awakener of longing

¹ See Fromm 1977, pp. 151–152; see also Itkonen 2014; 2015.
It is a long time since I last sat here and beheld the dawn of the longest day. My mind has been obsessed with the thought of experiencing the summer and of losing it. In childhood, summers always CAME: limpid, bright, fragrant and present – we felt them, we lived them.

I aged and the summers vanished: they followed each other bringing nothing particular. They were always upon me BEFORE something, like an interval spent waiting for an important event. I lived them without experiencing them – lived in a posture of departure; awaiting a world to come.

I do not know whether when I am old there will be time to let the summers come again, come to me and not always be somewhere else; live outside the moment without seeing into it.

The value of the moment lies in its being, in the way we step within and live the core of it in our self. We are present here and now, not always only on the sloping surface of an interlude, the anteroom to tomorrow which tomorrow is also an anteroom. An unredeemed promise which leaves infinite yearning.

Now a being has been brought to life capable of participation; let the tale proceed.

There is too much involved in my relationship to the other for me to pass by the matter with a nod. Thus: in medias res.

I live in the same world – that is the same space – as others; yet I cannot define this spatiality simply from my own position as if I were setting myself up as the zero point against which all else must be defined. The truth is otherwise: my own location is but one point in space among so many others. At every location there lives another; to see this is to see the nature of being.

Edith Stein\(^2\) writes of mirror – or mirroring – empathy: In my basic nature I am – only in my consciousness, it is true – mental or spiritual. I am also cast into the world as a corporeal being. In my mind I must see myself as a physical entity – as I see others. This physical body is my own true zero point: it is the boundary between me and the world. Every physical body has its unique intersurface with the world, its own personal point zero.

I must step out of myself regard my body from the outside. Thereafter I can return to my body and know myself through the medium of others. Every physical body that encounters me is my mirror image; it sees me as I see it. I am no more and no less than the other.

I had a dream which cleared up for me the problem of the body of another. I was a child and I was watching from a ladder myself as an old man sitting on a

\(^2\) Stein 1980.
horse. The little boy saw the black garments, every wrinkle in the face; I, the boy, carried with me that old man – fascinating thought – that old man dwelt in me. And I – as my actual self, dreaming this – was part of both. Both were of me, I of them.

Someone has seen me physically as a little boy; hopefully someone will also see me in the eve of my life. In my dream I – in manhood – saw both.

Empathy also involves partaking – I am part of the other, he of me. I am not emotionally bound to him. Is this an experience somehow akin to a relationship with God: I, as a part of all, without yet losing my selfhood? I transpose myself into another key. We walk a while in the tracks; we hear the call of our shared world.

We possess the ability to animate physical objects. Everything takes place in immediacy – in proximity, a part of which we both are. Empathy ends when I turn my gaze backwards: I try to find the right words. I set about draining the cup of ontologicity. The truth dwells once more in language.

**The layers of the experiential world**

How is the milieu, the sphere of existence, of the physical or corporeal present? There must be some characteristics that confirm the ideas of immanence and the lived body. I will clarify the analysis with Professor Lauri Olavi Routila’s views. He identifies three basic worlds that constitute the lifeworld (*Lebenswelt*):

1) Natural reality (*Naturwelt*): the entity of objects and processes that is largely independent of humans
2) The world of action (*Tatwelt*): the layer of human activities
3) The gestalt world (*Gestaltwelt*): the layer of artificial objects and processes produced by humans.

The two last-mentioned basic worlds are related to the elaboration of this assay’s theme: the reality of the lived body is located in the layer of activities.

The dimension of the fantasized or imaginary self, instead, resides in the artificial reality of objects and processes produced by humans. I will focus the analysis on both of these elements of worldliness.

We should indeed continue to examine Routila’s ideas a little more closely. Particularly category three, the *Gestaltwelt*, deserves more thorough investigation. It is thus a good starting point for analyzing the multi-layered reality.

The characteristics of the *Gestaltwelt* rely on the fact that objects produced by humans (artifacts) begin to exist in their own right: they break away from their generators’ sphere of influence and are transformed into a reality that affects

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3 See particularly Routila 1986, pp. 90–93.
human life. Therefore, it sometimes happens that such factors as history, ideologies, art or education have unforeseeable impacts on people’s behavior and activities. In this context Routila highlights bureaucracy, which according to him has taken the shape of a totally uncontrollable thing-in-itself (das Ding an sich, noumenon). The development and mushrooming of duplication techniques have also reinforced the power of the Gestaltwelt in our daily lives. At the same time, excellence has declined or completely disappeared. It is even justified to talk about an aesthetic pollution of the cultural environment: the revival of the era of trash culture. 4

The ideas presented in Routila’s excellent book Mitteen teen tiedettea taiteesta actually seem surprisingly close to philosopher Karl Popper’s views on the structure of three different worlds and contents or objects. Professor Ilkka Niiniluoto has characterized and insightfully interpreted the topic in his remarkable essay collection Maailma, minä ja kulttuuri. World 1 in the outline seems to correspond to Routila’s basic dimension of natural reality: its characteristic elements include living organisms, fluids, solids and helium. The weft of subjective experiences can be regarded as the essence of World 2. Its key components are the states of awareness or consciousness, as well as awareness of the self and its mortality. The issue of whether animals possess awareness is here merely brushed aside with a brief mention. This category resembles the Tatwelt, the layer of human activities presented by Routila. 5

In World 3 we enter the layer of artificial objects and processes mocked by Routila. Niiniluoto’s crystallization of Popperian cosmology contains the core of Routila’s philosophy, worded in a slightly different way. The elements of World 3 include, among others, artworks, science, technology, human language, theories of the self and death, stories, myths, tools and social institutions. That is to say, we are again in the realm of products generated by the human mind and human communities. Perhaps we should even speak about the arrival at or the reaching of the essence of experienced culture. 6

**Meanings and interpretations**

Following Popper’s reflection paths further is necessary for a thorough application of the theories. It also provides us with the opportunity to ponder the problems related to meaning and meaningfulness. When explaining the worth or worthlessness of something, we are simultaneously dealing with different worlds. The interpretation resembles a chain whose parts affect one another. In terms of understanding, each of the worlds is usually insufficient by itself. Mutual interaction between the particles – activated reciprocity – is needed.

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4 See Routila 1986, p. 91.
5 See Niiniluoto 1990, pp. 17 and 18.
6 See Niiniluoto 1990, p. 18; Popper 2015.
Niiniluoto refers to Popper’s distinction between incarnate and non-incarnate (corporeal and incorporeal) objects. Here it might also be appropriate to use the words bodily and unbodily, non-bodily. The essential observation at this point is that both of the objects must reside in World 3, or according to Routila’s categorization, in the gestalt world.  

The first object category, the category of corporeality, encompasses such objects as books, sculptures, buildings, clothes and utensils. The incorporeal entities may then be represented by traditions, hereditary information, ways of life and goals. However, the most essential factor for meaning-making and the interpretation process is the aforementioned interaction between the worlds, which has either become active or been consciously activated. There is reason to link the analysis more closely to urban culture.

Different, for example functionalistic, buildings belong to World 1. They are also a part of the notion Routila develops about natural reality. They are associated with, for instance, an easily recognizable form language. – Various significant buildings in the 1930s were designed by Alvar Aalto. They are also connected to World 2, because thinking about them evokes in people’s minds a sense of Finnishness and reminds them of the halcyon period prior to World War II. To mention a few, the Paimio Sanatorium or Vyborg Library by Aalto may well live in numerous Finns’ minds as some kinds of symbols for the happy days of an integral and undivided home country. On the other hand, studying takes place in the world of action, and it may specify the mental image we have about the relationship between architecture and the sense of nationalism. In other words, buildings are not objects that represent only one world – as entities of World 1 and World 2, they crucially also affect World 3, which is the most focal realm with regard to interpretation as well as urban and cultural studies. Precisely World 3, the gestalt world, is the hive of meaning-making, the realm of the essential.

A building as an architectural, artistic creation is capable of presenting itself as an element of World 3, both in the role of a corporeal and non-corporeal object. A thorough analysis requires a further brief examination of Routila’s theory about the forms of a potentiality field. The book *Miten teen tiedettä taiteesta* provides a sly, compact characterization (Routila 1986): ‘In principle, a potentiality field has two forms: it is either open or closed. Life implies realizing or relinquishing possibilities, which consequently open or close. These two opposites are actually not diametrical – they do not exclude each other; I would rather say that every concrete situation in life is closed in a specific direction in order to be open to another. Nevertheless, our lives are sometimes more open

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7 See Niiniluoto 1990, pp. 22 and 23.
8 See Niiniluoto 1990, p. 23.
9 See Niiniluoto 1990, p. 23; Popper 2015.
and sometimes more closed; and this does not only apply to our individual lives – communities, nations, even eras can alternate between these two extremes.  

There is no doubt that Aalto’s functionalistic architecture looks worldly. However, the essence of a building as a physical object is not open only to a Finnish interpretation: thanks to its prominent designer, it contributes to the image of Finnishness also outside of Finland. The meaning-making process is thus simultaneously opened into a national and international cultural narrative. That is why the two routes of interpretation are not mutually exclusive. In the same way, the form of existence of our national collective narrative simultaneously represents rusticity and broad cosmopolitanism. Non-corporeality cannot exist without the corporeality element. A concrete form generates a mental picture. Without corporeal existence, illusory existence is also soulless, empty.

The alternation between openness and closeness is also strongly associated with the spirit of the era as well as the transition from one era to the next. The 1930s, with its various representations, depictions or images, lives for a specific period and then dies. It remains the property of a specific interpreter generation. A new generation will interpret the same target in its own characteristic way. The buildings continue to exist and are preserved over generations, even though the observers give way to their successors. Alvar Aalto still exists as a concrete architectural creation and as a notion or illusion of his own existence in the world: he continues to live both as an object external to human awareness, a building; and as a mental image representative of a reality outside of consciousness, worldliness. As a generation disappears, an entire joint interpretation ceases to exist as well. However, the creation of stories does not end – it continues its path.

**Epilogue**

The meritorious book *Kuvista ja kuvaamisesta* by Sinikka Kallio-Visapää was published in 1955 with the apt subheading *Esseitä taiteen ja kirjallisuuden ilmiöistä*, i.e., ‘essays on artistic and literary phenomena’. For some reason, the book has received relatively little attention, even though the analyses and interpretative reflection paths it presents still seem to be of quite a high level. Kallio-Visapää was also an excellent translator into Finnish.

Sixty years ago, Kallio-Visapää emphasized an issue that is topical even today: the problems caused by rapid technological development. The glorification of technicality and mechanization covers only half of the truth: the element of uniqueness disappeared as various duplication methods were developed. This simultaneously eradicated the bewitchment associated with the belief that only

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10 Routila 1986, p. 92.
one piece of an image or artwork exists in the whole world. The creation in question may still be exhibited in only one specific environment. Nowadays, for instance, images distributed as printed matter are banal and prosaic phenomena in our experiential reality. There is thus no more reason to talk about the rare luxury available or accessible to only the precious few. In past generations, children felt a trace of this vanished state of affairs upon the amazement and delight evoked in them by rather primitive picture books. The later generations of children have been deprived of this joy, among others, by comic strips.  

The reader can strongly feel that Kallio-Visapää is present in the 2000s and writes about our mediated era, even though it was in fact six decades ago. It is actually surprising how someone is able to act as an interpreter of the future, in a way, as if she managed to see into the days ahead. Kallio-Visapää seems to worry about the fact that photography facilitates the copying of major works, which makes the artistic reality constituted by the photographs of images browsable to anyone. The development of tourism has nearly minimized distances: it has harnessed even the most remote treasures and monuments. Art exhibitions and different world tours also bring the most exotic cultures to our doorsteps.

Kallio-Visapää assumes that the ease of copying and duplication has alienated people from art. It is true that the purely repetitive duplication of original master pieces, as well as the fast circulation of photographic copies from one person and location to another, may increase a certain kind of knowledge of art. The main problem is yet the banalization, secularization of images. This happens when images become simply images: some sorts of recyclable items and consumer goods. Therefore, these simple images can only evoke in the viewer an interest and aesthetic pleasure. However, they cannot come to fruition in the same way as ‘genuine’ images, neither can they generate such enchantment in the viewer that would manifest itself as profound dedication and as a firm belief in the power of art. This also reveals the difference between an original work and its replica: the image is only a pale reflection of its actual source.

The world and the spirit of the age have changed a lot even from the anticipations that Kallio-Visapää portrayed in her excellent essay collection. Our virtual reality and mobile phone era has actually meant a cultural turning point or revolution. The concepts of duplication and availability have obtained totally new contents and meanings: distances seem to have shrunk to nil. Images and other objects can be distributed from one person to another by merely one press of a button. Our entire existence is characterized by a sensation of speed and ease. Hardly any effort is required for access to artistic experiences. At the same

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11 See Kallio-Visapää 1955, pp. 48–49.
12 See Kallio-Visapää 1955, p. 49.
13 See Kallio-Visapää 1955, pp. 49–50.
time, the immediacy of experiences has turned into detachedness. What is the role of philosophy in such a turning point of cultural existence?

Through a slight generalization, one could say that this essay focuses on weighing the nature of media reality – or mediated reality. In other words, we are primarily dealing with practical and applied philosophy. The aim is also to verbalize notions regarding the spirit of the time and space, as well as their profound reflection. To sum up, the objective is to methodologically develop \textit{zeitgeist} and \textit{topos} analyses. I guess this could also be called love for the truth or wisdom of cultural loving – the uncompromising main goal is, indeed, the promotion of contemporary comprehension.\footnote{See Itkonen 2012.}

\textit{Translated by Glyn Hughes, Robert MacGilleon and Sirpa Vehviläinen/Jennifer Nelson}

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\footnote{See Itkonen 2012.}
A SWOT Analysis of Arguvan Türkü* Festival

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Arguvan Türkü Festival (ATF) is an international folk music festival which is organized in a small town since 2003. In this study, it is aimed to determine strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of ATF by making use of festival attendants’ views. For this purpose, qualitative research is performed with 26 people of whom 8 tradesmen in Arguvan, 5 local Arguvans, 5 participants out of Arguvan, 3 Arguvans living out of Arguvan, 3 committee members of festival and 2 governors for average 40 minutes during the festival between 2nd and 3rd August 2014. As a result, besides the strengths like high participation rate, strong relations between residents, relatives and friends, no security problem, well recognition of the town, its economic impact for the local shopkeepers; it is also mentioned some weaknesses of the festival like low economic contribution to the locals, no place for local products at the festival, extreme alcohol consumption, no popular performers in recent years, descending participation rate, and infrastructural and super structural deficiencies. It is also revealed some opportunities and threats about the festival.

About the Festival

The generation who immigrates from the hometown after the 12th of September 1980 state-stroke and has a longing for his hometown established Arguvan and Its Villages Social Cooperation and Solidarity Society in Istanbul in 1991. Society turned out to be Arguvan and Its Villages Educational and Cultural Foundation in 1995. When it is mentioned about Arguvan, first come to mind is its culture; when culture is mentioned, its folk songs come to mind, then this chain has brought the people to the idea of folk song festival. Firstly, it was thought the festival took place in Istanbul would be best, later due to the fact that the source of the songs was Arguvan, the festival was decided to be held in Arguvan. Mayor Mehmet Kızıldaş expresses the aim of the festival as to make the Arguvan songs alive, make them spread, transfer it to the future generations,

* A special folk music belong to Turkish people.
and by this way it is believed that the festival will serve both Arguvan culture and its economy.

ATF was first organized in 2003. One member of artist organization committee of the foundation (54) expresses his feelings about the festival as following; ‘first there were worries, would it be enough participation, money allocation, etc. But finally it turned out to be glorious festival. We succeeded in 90% of the folk singers’ attendance.’ Mayor expresses their reason to carry the festival to the international platform since 2010 as follows:

‘Our aim was to make the Arguvan culture known abroad. There are a lot of Arguvan people living out of Arguvan and our country. Moreover, our songs are not only peculiar to only Arguvan and its people. They are the songs whose characteristics form, content, emotional structure which emphasize the grief, separation, love, yearning and longing, and for this reason every one listens in pleasure and finds something from their own. In addition to this, we also aimed to gather the folk songs of the other countries together in Arguvan in our country. At the same time we wished Arguvan songs and culture to be mentioned in their countries and also let them know Arguvan which is a small town in Anatolia closely. We also invited Cuba, Armenian and Assyrian groups. There came a lot of artists from various countries. Some groups attracted admiration of many; while some locals criticized the festival saying ‘wouldn’t it be better if we listened only to the Arguvan songs. But we are the people who think on the universal platform.’

‘Arguvan Songs’ which has been the subject matter of the festival that has been defined as ‘the unique all over the World’ by one of the foundation member, have been recorded in Intangible Cultural Heritage National List in 2013 and will be proposed for UNESCO’s Intangible Cultural Heritage List in the near future. Although songs are peculiar to the region, they are known and sang by everyone who loves and sings folk songs. So this separates the festival from any watermelon, cherry and apricot festival as Mayor also states. ‘ATF is the one which serves culture.’

Although the host of the festival is the Arguvan Municipality, the one which carries the financial and moral load is the Arguvan foundation and Organized Village Societies. Arguvan Municipality has a very little scope. The high committee consists of three people; mayor, head of the foundation and a representative of the Organized Village Societies. In the last two festivals, two representatives from Arguvan Society in Ankara and organized ten village societies from Malatya have joint the high committee. There also exists Arguvan Society in Germany which supports financially and morally although they are not able to take part actively due to the distance. Organization includes

† The city where Arguvan is situated in.
sub-commissions working under the high committee: finance, culture, press, artists, and etc. committees. For example artist committee decides about the names within the knowledge of the main committee and since it is not possible to invite the every name, alternatives are decided upon, contacts are arranged, and available artists are interviewed and invited. Invited artists and authors are not paid any fee. The committee isn’t in the cooperation with any organization firm; they completely work with their own forces.

Although they don’t pay any fee to the artists, the festival has considerable costs: “Because we attract numerous people here. And since there is no hotel existing in Arguvan, we host our guests in Malatya. It costs a lot to host this number of guests in a hotel’ says Mayor. The estimated cost of the festival is between 100,000 – 120,000 Turkish Liras. However this amount is provided by only financial support and sponsorship of the Arguvan people. Arguvan is not able to be backed up by any of the State Institutions due to its antagonist structure of thought and belief. Although the Ministry of Culture and Tourism undertakes the whole expenditures of many other festivals, it doesn’t contribute anything for this one, except the 5,000 Turkish Liras given once for all the years that festival takes place.

Although the festivals is planned to be held at the end of July every year, it can be held one or two weeks before or after Ramadan. At the festival, which lasts two days, nights are occupied by the concerts, while during the daytime panels and village trips take place. Besides all, there happens photo and picture exhibitions, openings and street performers. However this year, the festival will take a start with a documentary named “Gözdağı Belgeseli’, describing Gezi events. Although in the first years of the festival, the problems of Arguvan were discussed in the panels; recently the current political topics are to be discussed.

According to the press members’ observations, there is a 20,000-35,000 people attendance during the festival. If the feet that the population of the central town is 2300 is taken into consideration that means there is ten times more mobility and activity during the fest than the ordinary times. This might be summarized best with the words of a participant towards the Mayor:

‘I have thought that Arguvan is a really big place upon hearing about the participation amount and the enthusiasm from the Arguvan people. When I arrived, I surprisingly saw that it has a small street. I thought that even the houses were full of people, there would be no way to reach to the pretold number; they were exaggerating. Then I saw the crowd! Where did you bring all these people from? Did they come out from the soil underneath or from the sky below? Where?’

Most of the participants are Arguvan people living out of the town, in different cities and countries. Especially the number of participants from closer cities
like Sivas, Erzincan and Kahramanmaraş, and from big cities like İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir is high. Their common point is their being fond of folk songs. Moreover the democratic and peaceful atmosphere of the festival gave way to an escaping tunnel for the youth around the neighbouring towns and cities. There exist participants who came both to listen to the songs and have a nice time around. Most of the participants come from the city center or villages on a daily basis. The capacity to host people in the town is limited with a hostel of 50 people, but there is a wide variety of lodging opportunities in the city center with 65 km distance. However the hospitality of the people there makes them their doors of the houses wide open for the guests.

**Research Aim and Methodology**

By taking the opinions of the participants of ATF, it is aimed to reveal the weak and strong sides and possible opportunities and threats of the festival by SWOT analysis. For this reason, before ATF Mayor and Caimacam have been interviewed for two hours long each on 23rd of May 2014 and some prior knowledge has been taken about the festival. The main study has been carried out during the festival between 2nd and 3rd of August and average 40 minute interview with 24 people have been realized. People interviewed consist of 8 tradesmen in Arguvan, 5 local Arguvans, 5 participants out of Arguvan, 3 Arguvans living out of Arguvan, 3 committee members of ATF. Five of the interviewed participants are female, and ages vary among 26 to 63. Half structured interview form has been used and besides the questions related to SWOT analysis, some others about the past and future of ATF and its contribution to the town have also been asked. Most of the interviews have been recorded upon the condition of interviewees’ permissions.

**Research Findings**

**Strengths**

When asked about the strong aspects of ATF, the first answer from the participants is being the fact that ATF provides families and the Arguvan people with closer relations and gives way to strengthen the ties among themselves. Moreover this opinion is shared not only by Arguvans, but the others as well. The participants out of Arguvan also think that ATF contributes to the friendships occur and people having closer ties.

Another feature of ATF is the higher number of the participants in comparison with the other fests. Between 20,000 and 35,000 people joins ATF daily. Mayor emphasizes this situation with the following words: “After revealing the date of the ATF, a TV channel invited us for tea. The general manager of the channel phoned the head of the Cultural Affairs Department in Malatya Municipality and said ‘ATF dates have been decided, you now can decide upon the date of the
Apricot Fest’. They decided upon the famous Apricot Fest according to the ATF! Malatya has a population of 525,000. Apricot Fest has never had participants over 10,000 till now.

Although the participation number is high, due to the tolerance attitude and cultural level of the local people there has been no event met in the police records up to present. As one member of organizing committee (54) states ‘you have seen Arguvan now, that much people gathering in that small town makes us happy. A lot of people comes and joins us, too much alcohol is consumed and we finish with a zero police record. This shows that alcohol culture has also improved.’ One Arguvan participant living abroad (45) summarizes the atmosphere of both the town and ATF as follows: ‘Children may wonder around in the absence of their parents. There will be no harassment for women, not even a bad intended glance, women are privileged here.’

The fact that every folk music singer has at least one Arguvan song in his repertuar, there have been song verses written peculiar to Arguvan and the positive image of Arguvan songs in folks’ mind has affected the image of ATF positively, in turn ATF affected the image of the town positively. The town is now being known inside and outside the country because of ATF. Although the name of Arguvan was known very little before, due to ATF a lot of people know. Even the people abroad watch ATF live on TV or on the Internet. Mayor tells us with pride ‘when we wanted to invite Cahit Mürtezaoğlu, a singer from Iran, he asked which fest was it? When we said ATF, he replied as ‘yes I know, Arif Sağ, Sebahat Akkiraz‡ and other friends sang there.’ For example when I called Ümran Kalkan, a Balkan singer, she also said she was aware of ATF, even she also gave the names of the invited singers’ names. Of course to hear such things were so beautiful that I felt so proud of ATF.’

Although local tradesmen think the reverse, participants emphasize the importance of ATF’s contribution to tradesmen’s economy. Besides this, very well designed organization, wide range of the folk songs, well-known singers’ participation, the artists’ and panelists’ more stayings in the town after ATF, folks’ hospitality, the foundation staff wondering among the public as “on duty’ staff, ATF’s bringing vividness to the town, the increasing number of the real estates in the town can be counted as the strengths of ATF which are mentioned by the participants.

Weaknesses

Although the participants accept the ATF’s contribution to economy of the town, they emphasizes that it doesn’t add to anything to the budget of the folks and tradesmen state that contribution is being exaggerated since only the

‡ Famous Turkish folk music singers.
restaurants and alcohol selling stores are the ones who earn. One hardware dealer (48) states “food sector earns well. My neighbour was running his restaurant alone, but now he runs with the help of 8 to 10 people team’ while another shopkeeper (53) states that ATF doesn’t add much to her business. “It only helps a little during the fest month and the profit is being regular only in that month, not a year long. No one earns that much.’ One restaurateur (36) has a different point of view for the topic: “Fest doesn’t have a much effect on the economy, in reverse our service quality is going down.’

Another weakness is that the products produced in Arguvan are not presented in the ATF. One Arguvan people (28) points out that introducing local beekeepers should be the matter to be concentrated on and ATF should be a market for those products. He states “I prepared a honey stand in the fest in 2011. I tried to promote but there should be someone to encourage us to sell the product. Even my family says ‘go and work somewhere else.’ I deal with beekeepers professionally. To promote the produced goods and to encourage the youth to stay here is a must.’ One participant out of Arguvan (45) says that she wishes to see some exhibitions of the local things and she adds “there should be some handcraft, maybe made at home during the winter; some song cards or bookmarks which songs are written on should be sold on the stands.’ Another participant out of Arguvan (29) emphasizes this deficiency with these words “aren’t there any handicraft things here? They should be spread all over the country by means of people participating in the fest. It maybe small things but they should be presented on some stands somewhere. Why can’t I see them? First of all, what kind of handicrafts does Arguvan have should be searched, by this way women earn money and all these can be shared on the digital surrounding.’

‘Doesn’t this place have any where to see?’ says one participant out of Arguvan (52), by pointing out another deficiency of ATF. Another participant out of Arguvan (45) shares the same opinion with her by saying that “it is necessary to arrange something for the people to do before / after the events. One shouldn’t kill time in those tea-houses! There should be museums, exhibition areas which takes people’s time and money for the local’s profit.’

Another weakness which all the participants have mentioned is the excess amount of alcohol consumption during the ATF. Caimacam Zafer Oktay states that the problem is not the excess amount of alcohol consumption; people may drink as much as they want. The main issue is that all the tradesmen, even the barber start looking for the ways to sell beer. Mayor ends the discussion by saying “we also are not pleased with everyone drinking alcohol. But it is not possible to reach anywhere by prohibitions. It is not possible for us, as a group always backing up the idea of free man, friendship, brotherhood, peace and love,
to have a start with a prohibition. Moreover we don’t have the right to prohibit. Can you say ‘do not drink’ to the man in the street?”

ATF has also infra and super structural deficiencies. Among those are; there is no separate festival field, small concert area which doesn’t have enough capacity, deficient music volume during concerts, inavailability of the panel area, bad sound system, inadequate restaurants and parking places, and deficiencies in the toilets.

The date of the ATF has been determined as the last week of July, but the fact that weather is extremely hot at that time in Arguvan, ATF has been affected badly. It is being so hot in Arguvan that people are not able to go out till the late afternoon. Maybe because of this, there has been almost no human being seen in the streets in the daytime except panel hours. According to one shopkeeper (53), in the first years of ATF there had been a queue in front of her shop at 9 a.m.

Another weakness related to ATF is that Arguvan accent is not being used in the songs. Folks also complain that invited singers don’t have much sensitivity towards the topic.

Opportunities

One of the most important opportunities is that ATF has a wide scale public support which is proved with the Arguvan people living out of the town or country arranging their vacations according to the dates of ATF and coming 15 days before and leaving 15 days later. With this way, not only the continuity of ATF is provided but the vividness on the economy and the social coalescence among public. Together with the support of the Arguvan people for ATF, the interest shown by the people living in the surrounding cities is also quite important for ATF. Moreover the fact that a lot of participants do not only come to listen to the folk songs but also come to support Arguvan culturally and socially gives a rough idea about the future of ATF. Another point related to this topic is that the participation to ATF is being turn out to be a habit. One participant out of Arguvan (52) states as ‘I didn’t know Arguvan in the beginning. Now it’s well known. Even if famous singers do not attend, people keep coming. Why? It is because it became a habit. It is as if when someone mentions ATF, I rise and go. I would be coming unless something very important happens. If there is such a culture of us, let us support it.’

Since everyone contributing to ATF (singers, artists, panelist etc.) comes for free without demanding any money, the limited budget of ATF is being spent on very efficiently. Mayor explains why “I thank all the singers, authors and poets participated till now. They have been so devoted for Arguvan. We haven’t paid anything to our artists. If we had done so, we wouldn’t have carried that much load. We only pay the guests’ transportation, accommodation and food expenses. Besides this they don’t demand anything. There are some who
demands but we have general principles. People who love this culture, this folk music are fed from this source. There is only one folk song festival in Turkey. If they had taken money, this would have had a meaning that they just could’t serve this culture. We don’t find this right and ethical.’

According to the one committee member (63), ATF is unique all over the world as a folk song festival. This situation has been effective in Arguvan being heard and in its image. First ATF was very local, and then in 2012 it was mentioned in the national press. Mayor summarizes with pride and emotion:

‘We were giving ads on TVs and radios and local papers. Besides this we were taking place in our foundation and other organized village societies’ web sites. For the 10th ATF we decided to do something different. As Arguvan people we decided to gather in front of Galatasaray College and then walk till Taksim square singing our folk songs with a flourish of trumpets. So we wanted to elaborate this idea. We prepared our hand-outs. Ask to ourselves: What is Malatya famous for? Apricot! We designed a very little packet including a sun dried apricot and a few seeds, one side was written 10th of International ATF and other side the name of the sponsor if we could find any. It was June, we had called the singers originated Arguvan. A flourish of trumpets were playing, singers were singing and we were joining the songs as a chorus. Everyone was puzzled. Istiklal Street got used to gas bombs and shells later on. All the tradesmen, folks and tourists were shocked. It took a huge amount of attraction. So it took a long time to reach Taksim square by singing. There we did our press release. We wondered if we could be seen on the mainstream media because of busy agenda. At that night the mainstream media gave us a 2.5 to 3 minutes place. NTV, Kanal D, CNN, 24 and others… our expenditure was only the cost of those apricots. Telephones didn’t stop all day long. Some said he cried, some said ‘thank you.’

Being an international festival since 2010, ATF have opportunities both to contribute to coalesce cultures by bringing foreign groups to Arguvan and to get EU funds in the future. It is another opportunity to prolong the festival time from two days to two and a half. But there must be fully occupied content to turn into an advantage.

Threats

In the year 2013 the uncertainty experienced because of ATF not being held became a threat for ATF. This situation gave the ATF participants grief and gave way to the criticism. Since it wasn’t organized for one year, quite a lesser people participated in 2014. However, as many groups emphasized in that result, the fact that there were almost no popular singers attending played an important role. One committee member (48) states that it is difficult to invite the big singers each time and mentions the board of management decision.
According to it, in order to make young singers known by ATF, they don’t invite popular ones who were called once for three years long.

Another threat is that the town was established on a region under the danger of landslide. The thing that the road which links the town to the center collapsed before the 11th ATF caused the transportation to be realized by the side road. The thing that not being able to state the main road before ATF was also effective decreasing in the number of the participants. Especially the participant out of Arguvan and tradesmen emphasize that people with luxurious cars hesitate to use the side roads and it was a must that the road work to be finished before ATF.

Another treat that will affect the future of ATF is that although the cost of fest is high, the source needed are provided by the sponsorship, neither the Ministry of Culture and Tourism nor Malatya Municipality gave any support about this issue.

Elderly population is higher than the youth one in Arguvan. Caimacam states that the population is 9200 and it drops to 1000 in winter and they are mostly elderly people. Since there were not enough job opportunities in the town, youth moves out to work. But still there are some poets, singers and artists living in Arguvan.

Another point that worries the Arguvan people is that the aim might be change direction from the culture to the entertainment. One Arguvan participant living outside (33) says “some play their own music and dance while invited singers were singing folk songs over there!”

The peaceful structure of Arguvan folk might be another threat for safety. As Caimacam points out Arguvan people don’t have any signs of vandalism but they are open to everyone, even the provocators outside. Although local authority takes the necessary precautions, some of the folk is worried about the external threats. But there are different views. One of the participants out of Arguvan, police officer (27) emphasizes that there shouldn’t be strict security controls in such places because it spoils the festival atmosphere. People come to have entertainment. There should be a team ready for any possible event, though.

Another threat is that the panels might turn out to be propaganda of a certain political party. One Arguvan participant (36) states that he himself has a certain political view but he finds it faulty to discuss political or religious issues in the panels. One participant out of Arguvan (52) says “this fest shouldn’t be under the monopoly of any one. Rightist may join, leftist may join. Hey, this is only folk songs!” When talked about the subject matters of the panels, Mayor has a different view: “We usually discuss the topics that are current all over the country at that time. Everyday these issues are being argued at discussion
programs on TVs. There is no reason for not being discussed here. We also talked about songs and poets. But to talk about the same things over and over won’t attract the people’s attention.’

Since a Chinese company will start to mine in the town, the nature will be harmed in the near future and this is another threat for ATF. Arguvan and Its Villages Natural Life Protection Society have some work about it. They still try to make people aware of the danger and gain some support. The president of the society (36) says that they will turn ATF to be an opportunity to convey their ideas.

**Table 1. A SWOT Analysis of ATF**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strengths</strong></th>
<th><strong>Opportunities</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To strengthen the ties among Arguvans</td>
<td>Arguvans outside arrange their vacations according to ATF’s dates</td>
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<tr>
<td>To give way to the new friendships and closer ties among the participants</td>
<td>The dense interest of the people living in neighbouring towns and cities</td>
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<tr>
<td>No events in police records till present</td>
<td>First folk festival of Turkey</td>
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<td>To affect the image of Arguvan positively and cause Arguvan to be known</td>
<td>National press’ interest</td>
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<tr>
<td>Professional organization</td>
<td>To communicate and interaction between the cultures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Famous and qualified singers / artists attending and their long stayings after ATF</td>
<td>To get some contribution from EU funds</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wandering organization committee members around the folk all fest long to keep the security and connecting people</td>
<td>Prolonged time schedule from two days to two and a half.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arguvan gets vivid and active during ATF</td>
<td>The increasing number of construction and their gaining value.</td>
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<td>The increasing number of construction and their gaining value.</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Weaknesses</strong></th>
<th><strong>Threats</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>Limited economic profit with certain tradesmen and other local producers, sellers and folks don’t gain anything</td>
<td>One year break in 2013</td>
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<tr>
<td>No place for the products produced in the town in ATF. No promotion and sale support</td>
<td>Landslide territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of activities to keep participants busy during ATF</td>
<td>No support from Malatya Municipality or Ministry of Culture and Tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Excess consumption of alcohol from time to time</td>
<td>Immigration of the youth to the big cities for the reasons of employment, education, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infra and super structural deficiencies</td>
<td>Shifting from cultural activity to entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low participation during the daytime due to the hot climate</td>
<td>Not much emphasize on the security</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Panels’ political content from time to time</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Some investments to effect the nature and ATF</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Results

ATF whose 12th was held in 2014 is a festival which tries to stand still with its own resources and succeeds to make it mentioned in the national and international platforms. All the participants interviewed within the study have emphasized the positive social and cultural aspects of ATF and mentioned the negative aspects as the aspects to be possibly corrected. That points out that ATF has a positive image in the eyes of the participants interviewed, people even the ones not originated from Arguvan have an embracement for it and ATF starts to be a habit for the participants. However ATF, as an international festival, should complete its deficiencies and keep away from the possible security threats.

For further reading


The differences in wellbeing attitudes between the residents of urban and rural regions in Balkan countries

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The residents of the Balkans (containing 11 countries in our research) have to face numerous difficulties because of their economies, as well as their state of wellbeing (Eurofound, 2013; Gallup, 2013). The political and socio-economic problems and the so-called “civilization illnesses” coming from unhealthy lifestyles are a major concern in this region (Ginter et al., 2013; The Economist, 2012; Becic et al., 2012). As a consequence there is a strong need for solving the question of how to improve and maintain quality of life and a good state of health of local people. For this, it is vital to have up-to-date and detailed research which can supplement and complement existing studies. This paper focuses on the results of research, whose objective was to analyze the state of wellbeing in Balkan countries. This included a large sample survey across eleven countries where representative numbers of respondents were questioned. The aim of this paper is to highlight the levels of wellbeing, health and happiness among the residents of rural and urban regions, as it was assumed that there are likely to be significant differences. Keywords: quality of life, wellbeing, health tourism, Balkan countries, residents of rural/urban regions

Introduction

In recent years academic and professional interest in quality of life (QoL), wellbeing, health, wellness and medical tourism has grown rapidly (Bushell and Sheldon, 2009; Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper, 2009; Connell, 2011; Smith and
According to the different Quality of Life indices published by UNDP, UN, OECD, EU, NEF, Balkan countries perform at a low level. The main goal of our two-year research funded by the Hungarian Government called Possibilities for application of regional well-being and wellness concepts and their development opportunities accomplished with IKT support in the Balkans (KTIA_AIK_12-1-2013-004) was to find out “What are the wellbeing levels of people living in Balkan countries and how can they be improved?” The research focused on 11 countries from the Balkans: Albania, Bosnia and Hercegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Greece, Macedonia, Montenegro, Romania, Serbia, Slovenia, Turkey. It so far includes secondary data collection including academic sources and QoL, Life Satisfaction, Happiness and Wellbeing Reports, primary data in the form of a Delphi Study (which is not discussed in this paper), as well as data from a questionnaire (11,000 respondents), some of the results of which are presented later. In this paper the literature review of wellbeing (and partly of quality of life) will be discussed, followed by a short description of the Balkan countries from QoL/wellbeing indices point-of-view, and the theme-specific preliminary results of the quantitative research, highlighting the topic of wellbeing in general and its drivers in urban and rural areas in the Balkan countries. These data can be used to inform tourism development especially in under-developed areas: on the one hand it provides a picture of the demand side of tourism (especially domestic and regional tourism) in the case of potential development, and on the other hand the quality of life/wellbeing determines the social environment of the tourism market and its development.

**Interpreting wellbeing issues**

Wellbeing can be conceptualized and measured in a number of different ways. There are numerous academic and research-based studies which have attempted to define and measure wellbeing and differentiate it from quality of life, life satisfaction, happiness and other indicators of a good life. Theofilou (2013) suggests that most recent studies have failed to make a clear distinction between quality of life and wellbeing, and it (is) true that the boundaries can be quite blurred.

Quality of life as an index could be described as a ‘good life’ which is a sum total of the objective factors determining a person’s life and their subjective perceptions of it. Objective factors are the circumstances, the conditions of life, the standard of living and they are referred to as objective quality of life factors. The subjective pillars of quality of life in this research are based on the person’s own assessment of satisfaction, happiness, and the way they feel. In the academic literature it is
referred to as wellbeing or subjective wellbeing. The term wellbeing is used here since the concept involves subjectivity. In this paper – and also in the wider research project – the focus is on the subjective part of quality of life taking into account those factors that cannot be treated independently from the objective pillars: that is to say, the objective circumstances of life frame subjective wellbeing.

Most wellbeing studies identify a number of different domains or arenas which form part of the concept of wellbeing. For example, Halleröd and Seldén (2013) suggest the following: physical health, material and economic resources, social relations, psychosocial issues (e.g. depression, anxiety) and destructive lifestyles. More specific domains would include employment, income, education, and housing. Many – mostly quality of life-based – studies tend to include even broader categories such as political stability, political freedom and gender equality as well as environment (e.g. The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2005). Indeed, many more recent studies emphasize the importance of environmental quality and ecosystem services for human wellbeing (e.g. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005; Happy Planet Index, 2012; Knight and Rosa, 2013). Villamagna and Giesecke (2014) see human wellbeing (or HWB) as a multi-dimensional concept that is measured along a quality-of-life gradient that reflects material (food, water, shelter) and non-material needs (good health, social cohesion, security).

Halleröd and Seldén (2013) note that it is important to consider how significant certain domains are compared to others and that there is a continuum between wellbeing and ‘ill-being’. Research also shows that there are strong correlations between arenas, e.g. people with poor health tend to be less happy and suffer more economic hardship. There are also vicious and positive circles, e.g. healthy people have good income and career development and this keeps them healthy or makes them even healthier.

It has been debated as to how far wellbeing is objective or subjective. Veenhoven (1995, 1996) suggested that objective wellbeing indicators are measures of inputs to wellbeing or quality of life, while subjective measures reflect actual experiences of one’s quality of life. There has been a broad agreement for many years that ‘a good life’ cannot be measured simply in terms of economic indicators such as GDP. Since Easterlin (1974, 1995) research has generally proved the notion of diminishing marginal returns, i.e. as countries get richer they do not necessarily get happier, although more extensive longitudinal research is needed to prove this more definitively (Knight and Rosa, 2011). Some theorists such as Veenhoven (2002)
even see subjective evaluation as being at the core of wellbeing and over the past few years, the study of subjective wellbeing’s components through mainly qualitative approaches has become more popular (e.g. Diener et al. 1993; Diener et al. 1999; Easterlin et al. 2010; Inglehart et al. 2008; Kahneman and Krueger 2006; Ryff and Keyes 1995; Diener and Suh 1997; Gasper 2004; Camfield et al. 2009). Some recent studies have begun to adopt other conceptualizations of wellbeing such as the notion of ‘flourishing’ For example, Diener (2010) who has been perhaps the most prolific researcher in the field of subjective well-being, added flourishing to his measurement of wellbeing. Its components include: purpose in life, positive relationships, engagement, competence, self-esteem, optimism, and contribution towards the well-being of others. Huppert and So (2013) measure the degree of flourishing across twenty-three European countries using the European Social Survey.

Measuring Wellbeing

Measuring well-being is one of the greyest areas of social scientific research (Babbie, 1999). While some experts try to take into account the subjective pillars of quality of life of the community studied using so-called proxy indicators, most researchers agree that the quality of life experienced by an individual is difficult to measure and the extent of well-being hard to assess based on characteristics observed by an external party (Hegedűs, 2001; Szabó, 2003).

Halleröd and Seldén (2013:809) state that „Basically all measures of wellbeing include an objective and a subjective dimension”. Some attributes such as physical and material resources can be easily measured using quantitative statistics such as frequency or quantity, whereas subjective components such as thoughts and feelings about one’s life or circumstances are measured by psychological responses (King, Reno and Novo, 2014). It is also important to remember that quantitative studies also rely on the partly subjective selection and weighting of indicators (ibid. 687). The optimum wellbeing research would make use of mixed methods (Petrosillo et al. 2013; King, Reno and Novo, 2014), including the following:

- Quantitative and qualitative approaches,
- Objective and subjective indicators,
- Social and subjective domains and perceptions.

Huppert and So (2013:855) state that „Some economically-driven surveys might include only one or a few subjective well-being items, but the future lies in developing a deeper understanding of the multiple dimensions of well-being, how
they are influenced by socio-economic factors, cultural values, secular shifts, and policy impacts” (p.855).

The number and type of indicators used to measure wellbeing vary quite considerably, although many researchers are now following certain indices such as EuroQoL Group’s EQ-5D measure, The Economist Intelligence Unit’s Quality of Life (EIU QoL) Index or the UNDP’s Human Development Index (HDI).

The EIU Where to Be Born index (2005, earlier QoL Index) uses several broad domains. These are: material wellbeing as measured by GDP per capita, life expectancy at birth, quality of family life based primarily on divorce rates; the state of political freedom; job security (measured by the unemployment rate), climate (measured by two variables: the average deviation of minimum and maximum monthly temperatures from 14 degrees Celsius; and the number of months in the year with less than 30mm rainfall), personal physical security ratings (based primarily on recorded homicide rates and ratings for risk from crime and terrorism), quality of community life (based on membership in social organizations), governance (measured by ratings for corruption), and gender equality (measured by the share of seats in parliament held by women).

Eurofound’s¹ (2013) third Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) includes many comparable indicators and examines a range of issues such as employment, income, housing and living conditions, family, health, work-life balance, life satisfaction and perceived quality of society.

The Happy Planet Index (HPI, 2012) places significantly more emphasis and weight on the ecological or carbon footprint of societies with three component measures: life expectancy, experienced wellbeing and Ecological Footprint.

The Human Development Index was created to emphasize that people and their capabilities should be the ultimate criteria for assessing the development of a country, not economic growth alone. It is a summary measure of average achievement in key dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, being knowledgeable and have a decent standard of living.

The Gallup (2013) Global Well-Being Index (GWI) allows for comparisons of element-level wellbeing at the individual, social network, organizational (e.g., employer, health plan, patient population), city, state, country, and global levels. The index includes five elements of well-being:

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¹ European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
• Purpose: Liking what you do each day and being motivated to achieve your goals,
• Social: Having supportive relationships and love in your life,
• Financial: Managing your economic life to reduce stress and increase security,
• Community: Liking where you live, feeling safe, and having pride in your community,
• Physical: Having good health and enough energy to get things done daily. The countries are measured according to how far they are Thriving (Well-being that is strong and consistent in a particular element), Struggling (Well-being that is moderate or inconsistent in a particular element), Suffering (Well-being that is low and inconsistent in a particular element).

The World Happiness Report (WHR, 2013) includes six factors: real GDP per capita, healthy life expectancy, having someone to count on, perceived freedom to make life choices, freedom from corruption, and generosity. Again, these are close to the quality of life measurements used elsewhere.

To measure quality of life and/or wellbeing there is no widely accepted, commonly used methodology among researchers. The definition, the concept and the methodology of measurement varies from one organization to the other. Some of the indices described above are based on academic research however the content of the indicators depends on the focus of the activity of the organization producing the index. Most of the indices have a short history and the methodology of the given indices are changing from one year to the other, which limits the possibility of using them for long(er) term or comparative analysis.

**Wellbeing in the Balkan countries**

Analyzing the data concerning the Balkan countries’ quality of life/wellbeing deriving from the above detailed indices, it can be concluded that the Balkan quality of life, wellbeing and happiness levels lag behind considerably compared to other European countries (Table 1).

It can be seen from Table 1 that the ranks of most Balkan countries are far from the happiest region in the world. Generally speaking, only Slovenia has a relatively favorable position in the international comparison, followed by Greece and Croatia. The least happy countries are Bosnia and Hercegovina, Bulgaria and Macedonia.

Some studies have also considered the so-called ‘livability’ of certain environments, especially cities.
Differences between the livability of a city or town and quality of life of its inhabitants can be attributed primarily to the objective nature of the former concept (Sufian 1993, Lubna 2007). The norms used for evaluation tend to be standardized according to the demands of the developed world: public safety, drinking water supply, internet access, retail variety. Although these factors do influence the quality of everyday life, they do not fully explore the human relationships which can truly bring happiness to those who inhabit or visit those places (Ágoston 2007; Brülde 2007; Bruni–Porta 2007).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>5.3 (73)</td>
<td>0.716 (95)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>5.55 (62.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>7.3 (n.a.)</td>
<td>5.6 (62)</td>
<td>0.812 (47)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6.06 (46)</td>
<td>5.66 (58.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia &amp; Ha.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>4.7 (104)</td>
<td>0.731 (86)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>4.81 (107.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>6.29 (27)</td>
<td>4.2 (120)</td>
<td>0.777 (58)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5.73 (61)</td>
<td>3.98 (144.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>6.49 (26)</td>
<td>5.8 (52)</td>
<td>0.853 (29)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>6.65 (34)</td>
<td>5.43 (70.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>7.2 (n.a.)</td>
<td>4.2 (127)</td>
<td>0.732 (84)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>4.57 (118.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>0.789 (51)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>5.85 (56)</td>
<td>5.30 (80.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>6.99 (21)</td>
<td>4.9 (92)</td>
<td>0.785 (54)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>5.86 (54)</td>
<td>5.03 (90.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>4.5 (112)</td>
<td>0.745 (77)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.77 (32)</td>
<td>4.81 (106.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>7.11 (18)</td>
<td>6.1 (45)</td>
<td>0.874 (25)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>5.95 (51)</td>
<td>6.06 (44.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>5.5 (67)</td>
<td>0.759 (69)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>5.34 (77.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Being well and being Balkan

1 = EQLS 2012/13 Happiness – Average 1-10 (Ranking)
2 = HPI 2012 Wellbeing – Average 1-10 (Ranking)
3 = HDI 2014 HDI – Average 0-1 (Ranking)
4 = GWI 2013 The proportion (%) of population thriving in at least one element
5 = WBB index 2013 Quality of Life – Average 1-10 (Ranking)
6 = WHR 2013 Happiness – Average 1-10 (Ranking)

Notes:
1 = 27 countries Highest average: Denmark (8.22), lowest: Bulgaria (6.29)
2 = 151 countries Highest average: Denmark (7.8), lowest: Togo (2.8)
3 = 187 countries Highest average: Norway (0.944), lowest: Niger (0.37)
4 = 135 countries Highest percentage: Panama (92), lowest: Afghanistan (25)
5 = 80 countries Highest value: Switzerland (8.22), lowest: Nigeria (4.74)
8 = 156 countries Highest average: Denmark (7.69), lowest: Togo (2.93)


The ‘earthly paradises’ rated by an international consultancy company, Mercer², (2014) i.e. the most livable cities in the world, are topped by western European

² www.mercer.com
cities. The index based on New York clearly shows a correlation between livability and order in the good sense (a functional city with efficient local administration, a rule-abiding and enforcing community). According to the Mercer index, Balkan cities (mostly capitals) presented a rather diverse picture in terms of livability. None of the cities ranked in the first quartile of the list of cities studied i.e. the 50 most livable cities in the world. The second quartile included the Slovenian, the Greek and the Croatian capital: Ljubljana (75), Athens (83) and Zagreb (98) ranked among the cities in the medium range with better ratings than others. In the third quartile, cities of medium range can be found but with a less favorable rating: Bucharest (107), Sofia (113), Istanbul (117) and Belgrade (135). Lagging far behind the top range, the cities rated most unfavorable in terms of livability, ranking in the fourth quartile, were Skopje (151), Sarajevo (155) and Tirana (176). Considering the complex nature of the Mercer index, it would be difficult to explain why the Balkan cities occupied places between 75 and 176 in terms of livability; but it is a fact that capitals belonging to the European Union obtain better ratings than those outside. In terms of livability of cities, the rating was governed by EU norms which some of the Balkan cities (capitals) cannot fully measure up to.

![Figure 1](image_url)  
*Figure 1 Quality of life and livability in Europe, 2012  
Wellbeing in rural and urban areas in Europe

It is common to undertake research on different social groups which can be formulated on the basis of demographic criteria, social connections, income, socialization in a narrow or wider sense, but also on attitudes and/or values, or activities (Dolan et al., 2008). Empirical research carried out on larger sample-sizes generally examines the quality of life/wellbeing of different nations. The complex connection between urban and rural areas, the changing economic activities, roles and functions and the treatment of conflicts between the two areas is a popular research topic. This question plays an important role in the politics of the European Union, as well, as it is estimated that in the EU four out of ten people live in a city and six in an urban area (Eurofound, 2014).

The EQLS discussed earlier examines the differences of quality of life and wellbeing of the urban and rural population of the EU member states and in additional seven countries. According to Eurofound’s third EQLS survey (2014:7) (27 EU member + 7 non EU-member countries as of the data collection): “relatively, many indicators of quality of life are worse for rural than for urban areas in one group of countries (Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia), while they are worse for urban areas in another group of countries (Austria, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Sweden, UK). The study also highlights that:

- In urban areas, a larger proportion of people have low trust in local government and are more dissatisfied with their accommodation than in rural areas.
- People in urban areas have higher incomes, but this does not mean less deprivation and less difficulty making ends meet, probably due to the higher cost of living and greater inequality in cities.
- People living in low- and middle-income households in cities in particular more often reported difficulties making ends meet during the crisis, closing the gap that existed compared with households with similar incomes in rural areas.
- Neighborhood problems are more common in urban areas.
- People in the top income quartile in villages or towns report fewer neighborhood problems than those in the three bottom quartiles.
- Access to public transport can improve access to services for which physical presence is often required, such as healthcare services, but also cultural and social services. While this is true for both urban and rural areas, better access to transport is more often needed in rural areas. (Ibid: 6-7.)
Research methodology and results

The quantitative research in this project was carried out by telephone interviews during summer 2014, asking 1000 people per country, altogether 11,000 responses. The sample is representative for age and gender, and contains demographic data about the educational background and the type of settlement as well. The limitations of the survey are typical of international research about happiness or wellbeing, such as different understandings and interpretations of terms, problems of cultural differences and translation.

The questionnaire contained eight wellbeing-orientated questions and two more in connection with the image of the Balkans. It was decided that the words ‘happiness’ and ‘health’ should be used rather than ‘wellbeing’ or ‘quality of life’, as the former words are easier to translate and understand compared to the latter. The wellbeing-orientated questions covered the following topics:

- the importance of happiness, perceived (self-rated) happiness, the role of travel in happiness, the intention to make efforts to increase happiness, sources (drivers) of happiness,
- the importance of health, perceived (self-rated) health, the role of travel in health, the intention to make efforts to improve health,
- Activities learnt from parents or other reference groups which contribute to happiness and activities actually done.

In connection with the image of the Balkans two questions were asked. One of them controlled the general association with the Balkans and the other one aimed to measure the respondent’s image of their own country.

In this paper the main research question was: „How is the subjective wellbeing of people living in Balkan countries, and how it can be improved?” Some sub-questions can be seen below:

- How happy are Balkan residents (in cities)?
- What are the drivers of wellbeing?
- Are there any significant differences between concepts of wellbeing and its drivers in cities vs. rural areas?

Happiness

The values given to the question of perceived happiness reached 3.92 across all of the Balkan countries (as averages on a Likert scale from 1-5). The average subjective wellbeing is far better than the objective indices foreshadowed in earlier
studies. It can be seen that people in Bosnia, Macedonia and Montenegro are the happiest, while people from Bulgaria, Greece and Slovenia are the least happy. The gap between the importance of happiness and making efforts to become or remain happy is positive except for two countries: Slovenia and Albania.

**Urban-rural differences**

Analyzing the questions regarding happiness by One-way Anova and Multiple Anova we found that there are no significant differences in the subjective wellbeing of people in urban versus in rural regions (as this is true for all the examined questions discussed below, therefore the urban and rural populations are not analyzed separately just the averages are put into the tables). This result seemed surprising, however the results can be drawn back to the work of Kékesi (2007) who found that there are no significance differences in the subjective wellbeing of urban and rural people for two reasons: on the one hand cities can offer more possibilities for self-realization and better health care, which make city citizens happier; on the other hand, rural people are happy because of the usually better quality of social and community contacts, which can typically be experienced in the rural areas.

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**Chart 1. How far do you agree with the following statement? – I am completely happy ... (average, scale 1-5)**

3 Abbreviations: BG – Bulgaria, GR – Greece, RO – Romania, TR – Turkey, AL – Albania, MK – Macedonia, HR – Croatia, SLO – Slovenia, MNE – Montenegro, SRB – Serbia, BIH – Bosnia and Herzegovina.
Drivers

Relationships with others (e.g. family, community), health and positive thinking are the most important domains of happiness in the Balkan countries, but travelling, and day-time rest are not. (Table 2. shows the details). Travelling is the most important for respondents from Montenegro, while physical exercise for the Macedonians. Income status is emphasized the most by Albanians but the least by Croatians.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>4.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health status/conditions</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love/being loved</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive thinking</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>4.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a job</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A clean, green environment</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>4.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good quality night-time sleep</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>4.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthy food</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends and social connections</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income status</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting job</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using free time without any constraint</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical exercise/sport/gym</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfilling travel desires</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day-time rest or siesta</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pets</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2. To feel happy how important are the following? (average, 11 countries, scale 1-5)*
Perceived health

According to the results, it can be seen that perceived health as one of the most important factors of subjective wellbeing is good among the respondents from the Balkan countries (measuring an average of 3.9 on a Likert-scale of 1-5). Healthy living is stated to be important for the respondents, though real life is a bit different (i.e. their habits may not be considered universally ‘healthy’ and objective studies confirm this). Greeks and Albanians feel the healthiest. Macedonians make the most effort to be healthy (but objectively they are not). Romanians and Bulgarians are below average regarding their state of health, as are the Croatians, but they do not make too much effort either.

*Chart 2. How far do you agree with the following statements? – average, scale 1-5*
Which of the following activities do you practice at least once a year?  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keeping close relationship with family and friends.</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking and eating traditional food/cuisine.</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spending time by the sea.</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singing, playing or listening to traditional music.</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spending time in woods and forests.</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spending time by lakes and rivers.</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spending time in mountains.</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in religious activities.</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following/taking traditional (herbal) remedies/Therapies (e.g. taking natural supplements, inhaling).</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using natural healing resources (e.g. water, climate, cave).</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing (traditional/folk).</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using spas/steam/hammam.</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in non-religious spiritual activities.</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of them.</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Which of the following activities do you practice at least once a year  
(multiple answers, rate of „yes”, %)

Activities Practiced

Regarding activities practiced at least once a year, there are some differences. Keeping close relationships, cooking traditional food, singing/playing music, and spending time by the sea are the most important, as are nature-based activities. Surprisingly dancing, spas and hammams, and non-religious activities are not popular (Details in Table 3). Romanians are the most active, followed by the Bosnians and Croatians.

Summary

The aim of this research was to explore the differences of wellbeing (measured by happiness and health) among the urban and rural populations of the Balkan countries. It can be seen that except in the EU-15 countries (countries that joined the European Union before 2004) that there are no significant differences in the wellbeing levels of rural and urban people. The EQLS, a Hungarian survey (Kékesi 2007), as well as this research in Balkan countries show that urban people seem to be as happy as rural citizens. More research is needed to explain why this might be the case. It should be highlighted that relationships (i.e. with community and friends) as well as nature-based activities drive wellbeing strongly in the Balkans. Tourism itself is not a driver for happiness (or at least, it is not ranked as highly as
other activities) but nature-based tourism could offer important development possibilities for domestic and regional markets. Further analysis will be forthcoming to analyze potential target groups and their characteristics for product/services development in leisure and tourism to enhance the subjective wellbeing of the Balkan countries’ inhabitants.

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The following article summarizes some of the key findings of a 3 years joint research project of BKF University of Applied Sciences and the Foundation for Information Technology – INFOTA Research Institute. In this research INFOTA has set the goal to thoroughly examine the up-to-date technologies in tourism ICT and trace a possible roadmap of how the countries in the Balkan region can utilize these to foster their tourism – especially health- and wellness tourism supporting the raise of life quality and wellbeing – services, infrastructure, management and communication to close up on the European best practices. Based on the thorough research INFOTA has defined so called Service-Technology Profiles (STPs) for the most important segments of tourism within the target countries. These STPs define a certain mix of technologies and services to be utilized in order to reach the required flow of information, communication, and destination management keeping the costs at an optimal level and accomplish the desired raise in the number of guests, guest experience and by this in monetization and extension of the length of visits.

Introduction

The BKF University of Applied Sciences together with the Foundation for Information Technology – INFOTA Research Institute has begun a 2 year research project to discover the natural and cultural values of the countries of the Balkan region that may serve as a basis for the creation of new concepts in tourism services focusing on preserving health and giving solutions for business utilization based on up-to-date ICT tools. The project is financed by the Research and Technology Innovation Fund (project no. KTIA_AIK_12-1-2013-0043) and is closely connected to the Europe 2020, Digital Agenda and Horizon 2020 strategies. The study focuses on a colorful mix of eleven countries in the Balkan Region: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Greece, Macedonia, Montenegro, Slovenia, Turkey, Romania and Serbia. Besides this illustrious fellowship, there are three control countries in the project focus: Austria, Slovakia and Hungary.

The Wellbeing concept

The results are supposed to offer the base for the so-called Balkan Wellbeing, defined along product concepts building on the characteristic values and natural gifts of the region aiming at tourists who want to travel with the purpose of preserving their health or having their health problems treated.
The main channel to raise effective demand for these newly discovered values and opportunities is the consistent utilization of the up-to-date ICT-possibilities from online accessibility and from services to smart devices based tour guides, travel applications or wearable technologies. The 11 target countries of the research project show a flamboyant picture of technological possibilities and concepts. Even the metropolitan areas – traditionally providing wider technological opportunities – mean no exception. This paper gives a thorough picture of this complex research, focusing on the role of technology in the new wellbeing concepts based on the best practices of the model programs like Nordic Wellbeing or Alpine Wellness and it equally presents the outcomes of a comprehensive research on the tourism IT of this region.

Health Tourism is a complex system, which only becomes competitive and sustainable on the long run, if the resources that are capable of ensuring uniqueness for a region and its service providers are becoming mapped and modelled in a thorough approach. Within the project solutions will be developed that are capable of being the basis and being incorporated in service-, destination-, product-, human health tourism- and infrastructure development projects founded from either public or private sources. These projects should provoke their expected economic and social impacts, and also comply with the requirements of environmental sustainability.

The countries of the Balkan region is characterized by an aging society brings major questions as to how can be maintained the overall quality of life and health of the public. Large proportion of the members of these societies suffers from “civilization diseases’ such as stress, panic disorder, depression, sleep disorders, high blood pressure, obesity, allergies and tumors developed by a variety of addictions or various joint problems, which mostly occur due to improper lifestyle and which could be largely prevented. (Játékos E. 2012.) There are already similar regionally meaningful concepts based on the same principles:

Alpine Wellness is specifically created to develop tourism, service and consumer demand categorization in the affected areas. One of the main goals of the Alpine Wellness was to be able to identify and choose parameters which make it possible to categorize quality and typify service providers. This was done in a manner that four sub-brands were also defined:

- Alpine Charakter (character, architectural style)
- Alpine Gesundheit (health)
- Alpine Verwöhnen (products)
- Alpine Fitness
Nordic Wellbeing not even go that far ahead in the adaptation of a pre-developed concept, as the research results were published just three years ago.\(^1\) However, the goals are very similar, because the concept aims at collecting knowledge and information, which provide assistance basically for the local tourism service providers and developers to introduce and develop brands, products and services for the visitors based on local endowments and health, as the main factor of motivation.

**Research Baselines**

The following article summarizes part of the technological review carried out by INFOTA within the project so far. The goal of the research is to set up the technology map of the tourism industry. Determine the technology trends in tourism the western and Nordic countries have followed in the previous years. Map the current state of the Balkan region and forecast the possible paths for development. And finally set up Service-Technology Profiles (STPs) and through this propose a proper technological toolset for certain segments of the industry in the target countries.

The basic methodology of the research consisted of mapping the basic technological trends in tourism, analyzing the best practices of the example models Alpine Wellness and Nordic Wellbeing, and a thorough survey of the tourism institutions (national tourism offices, destination management organizations, tourism faculties in higher education) within the target countries.

The main reason for the appreciation of the quality of life and leisure from a technological and technical point of view is the rapid development of production and info communication technology. Thanks to these on the one hand the human labor demand of production and services has fallen significantly, on the other hand, the use of modem technologies made possible virtually everything to be mass-produced thereto, reproducible, therefore, a significant number of products and services are less and less able to arouse any ‘customer experience’ in consumers.

**Technology trends in tourism**

1/3 of mobile searches have local intent. So the attractions, accommodations, tourism service providers has to be present on the internet with their localization data, preferably in the systems specialized on local search and marketing, like Foursquare, Google Maps, Bing Maps, etc. Even Facebooks’ own search service, the Graph Search requires accurate, local content in order to be able to utilize its marketing potential, and attract guests.

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\(^1\) For further information visit [http://www.nordicinnovation.org/Publications/innovating-and-re-branding-nordic-wellbeing-tourism/](http://www.nordicinnovation.org/Publications/innovating-and-re-branding-nordic-wellbeing-tourism/)
Being present in social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.) is a must, and not only to provide information and actual content, but more and more guests intend to use social media as a customer service channel. One in five consumers, 17% has used social media at least once in the last year to obtain a customer service response. And this presence needs to be continuous, as 42% of consumers expect a social media response within one hour, so they consider it as a real time, full scale customer service channel. (WWWmetrics, 2014.)

Social media is the primary place for word-of-mouth marketing, in travel industry an average guest will tell 15 people on average about positive (customer service) experiences. Social media is also the primary place where they share their travel experiences in word and in pictures. Considering photos taken Instagram is now the most important channel to share these. 40 million photos are posted to Instagram every day.

The most important technological trend is to go mobile. While travelers still use the conventional means and desktop/laptop devices to gather information and book and purchase travel related products, while on trip they depend on their mobile devices alone. 39% travel with a tablet and more than 90% with a (smart) phone.

It is of key importance that your digital presence (aka website) is well designed and capable to fully utilize the possibilities in handheld smart devices (phones and tablets). In order to do so, you need device- and resolution-independent web design, called responsive design, to make your content well consumable on the new gadgets as well. Responsive design means, that the content – should it be a website, a newsletter, an online ad, or any other form of digital appearance, should automatically sense the resolution of the screen, where they are opened, and restructure themselves for the best fit.

![Picture 1: Responsive website layout on different devices](Source: www.onitdigital.com)
Destination management organizations are currently receiving 1/5 (20.52%) of their total traffic from a mobile device, either a phone or tablet. Over the course of the past 12 months, this metric is up nearly 100%. When the same metric is viewed through a budget filter, some slight variations appear.

Diagram 1: Devices used to search for travel products online 2014.
Source of data: Google 2014.

The majority of mobile traffic comes through mobile search, with nearly 90% from Google. Direct traffic makes up the next largest segment and referral traffic the final third. Remaining traffic is split between campaigns and unknown sources.

Diagram 2: Sources of travel related mobile traffic 2014
Source of data: MARK, 2013.
Like a traditional web experience, the majority of visitors are finding and accessing destination content via search. To frame the metrics from a different narrative, the majority of travelers are stumbling upon your information. Rather than being directed to your site via advertising (Direct), they are finding specific snippets of content through a concentrated search. These metrics correlate with larger industry research showing that search is the most visited website category from a mobile device.

Although classified by Google Analytics as mobile, there are differences in the usage, behavior and location of travelers depending on device: smartphone or tablet. Tablet users tend to spend more time and look at more pages (3.01), otherwise known as the 'lean back' effect of the device. (PewResearch 2014) Tablet users are also looking for more generic content, closely resembling search patterns from desktop computers. Phone users are much more direct in their usage, spending less time and looking at fewer pages (2.07) while searching for a specific piece of content.

In broad terms, phone users are consuming 'instant' content, while tablet users are consuming 'informational' content. Beginning at the top of the user interaction funnel, the majority of phone visits are referencing instant or current content: such as events, things to do and restaurants. Tablet visits via search follow a broader pattern, again, similar to desktop search. Common search terms include the destination name (city, state, etc.), the DMO brand name and attractions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top Search Phrases - Phone</th>
<th>Top Search Phrases - Tablet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>things to do in (destination name)</td>
<td>(destination name) (country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>events in (destination name)</td>
<td>(destination name)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restaurants in (destination name)</td>
<td>things to do in (destination name)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(destination name) events</td>
<td>(destination name) events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(destination name)</td>
<td>visit (destination name)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 1: Top travel related search phrases on mobile devices 2014. Source of data: Google 2014.*

The difference can be subtle for specific destinations, especially those with larger geographic boundaries, but search terms used are dictated by mobile device.

When looking at the distribution of visits from these keywords, the top search phrases from a phone are much more balanced, while the top phrase for tablets (destination name, country) is searched 2.7x more than the second phrase (destination name).

The relative age or freshness of mobile content is not as large of a factor as relevancy for the consumer. While new content is important, and recommended,
the mobile visitor – specifically the phone user – is not primarily searching for what is new, but rather what is now, or at least, in the near future. Looking at site usage in the Events category by phone users, two primary entry points can be discovered: a general search for events or a search for a specific event. By examining the date of the search and the date of the event, the average planning period for a phone visitor can be determined: Travelers typically plan 1.7 days in advance on a phone. (IFITT, 2012)

In contrast, tablet visitors are viewing more “evergreen” content. That is, content that is not date driven or time sensitive. While the tablet user certainly looks at event information, the events are typically further out (14.7 days) than those viewed via the phone. This data correlates with research from Google on phone / tablet usage. On average, users spend 17 minutes per phone interaction and 30 minutes per tablet interaction. Different devices are used to find and consume specific information based upon location, time and relevancy.

A vast majority of travelers and consumers utilize destination management mobile sites to find specific information. They are consuming content with a purpose: to find information and answer a question. While usage differs depending on device, phone or tablet, both provide specific content and experiences for the traveler.

![Diagram 3: Sources of travel related mobile traffic 2014](source: MARK, 2013)

Consumers interacting via the phone are often consuming content in short sessions, entering via a specific keyword, looking for a specific answer and either succeeding or failing within a few clicks. The typical phone visitor does not browse for information, but rather investigates relevant content. Tablet visitors are a bit different. While they are certainly not 'killing time', they are
often browsing with a general goal, rather than a required query.

There are many internet enabled devices, that travelers use to reach destination sites and how do they make their purchase transactions. The most important ones are of course the traditional computer based connections, but the role of the new smart devices is constantly growing not only in browsing but as the primary forum of the conversion itself.

Among other internet enabled devices we can find interesting gadgets like Smart TVs, gaming consoles (Xbox, PlayStation), handheld gaming devices (PSP), eBook readers (Kindle, Kobo, Nook, etc.) and MP4 players (iPod). These also gain a measurable share not only in product research, but purchase transactions as well.

Concerning the timing of travel research activities weekends - Saturday and Sunday - are the most active days for mobile visitation to tourism destination websites. This statistical pattern is much more prevalent with phones than tablets, but the pattern holds true for nearly every destination, regardless of size, budget or geography. Consumers are often engaging with destination mobile sites during the weekend and while in destination. For both phones and tablets, the evening (8pm - 10pm) is the most popular viewing time. There is also a ‘lunchtime bump’ around 12pm, but typically only on weekdays.
It is important to understand that while the graph to the right shows a smooth continuous line of visitation, the visitor at noon is not always the same visitor in the evening. Analyzing the geographic locations, lunch-time visitation is primarily driven by a local audience and evening visitation is a more balanced split between local and non-local. (RapidValueSolutions, 2014) By examining the content viewed during the certain parts of the day, one can clearly observe this trend. Restaurants and food index higher around noon, while events and nightlife index higher in the evening.

A mobile optimized site can change the behavior of the visitor in terms of duration, pages per visit and successful visits, although the relevancy of the content is what drives the initial visit.

![Diagram 5: How often do people encounter issues accessing travel related websites via smartphone in the target countries 2014](source of data: Google 2014)

From the consumer's perspective the availability of a responsive or mobile-optimized site is a relative unknown, especially considering the number of visits delivered via search. Once the visit begins, users will quickly determine if the site is capable of delivering upon their query. 61% of users said that if they didn't find what they were looking for right away on a mobile site, they'd quickly move on to another site.

And for travel sites, specifically in the booking process, the #1 reason to abandon a transaction is a poor UI. Specifically, websites that is hard to see/read/navigate on a mobile device. A responsive or optimized site does necessarily not encourage more visitations, but rather helps generate a higher percentage of successful visits. The key for a successful mobile visit is the availability and ease of access to the desired content.
Diagram 6: What do people do after encountering issues accessing travel related websites via smartphone in the target countries 2014
Source of data: Google 2014.

According to Google, smartphone users typically plan 1.7 days in advance on a phone and 20 days on a tablet. Statistically, the challenge with these metrics is the behavior of the traveler. Because the traveler has access to both devices before, during and after travel, determining the specific travel phase with the largest usage of mobile is estimation. The second challenge is the definition of planning. While the larger act of planning an overall destination visit follows a more established pattern, daily planning that may occur via a phone is much more varied. By using anecdotal data from Google Analytics and survey data from Google Consumer Surveys, one can determine that planning via phone is likely completed during the Experience phase, while tablet usage is more likely in the Planning phase.

**ICT research outcomes**

The main research in the target countries concentrated on for topics concerning the utilization of ICT in tourism. Both primary and secondary research was carried out to find relevant and accurate answers and review the current situation and trends within these countries.

- Tourism ICT infrastructure (mobile applications, booking systems, CRM, loyalty, portals, recommender systems, guides, etc.)
- Social media presence
- Heritage management
- Qualitative questions (trends, problems, solutions)

As mentioned before the questionnaire was sent to university faculties teaching tourism and professional organizations like DMOs, NTOs, etc. 800 surveys were
sent all over the 11+3 countries within the project. The outcomes are summarized below. It is very difficult to say unified things about such a heterogeneous region. On the charts below we used a country by country examination, and where the detailed outcomes point in one direction, we utilized a uniform approach.

Diagram 7: Internet penetration in the target countries 2014
Source of data: Internet World Stats 2014.

The first and most important index-number is the internet penetration, as it describes the basic infrastructural possibilities, which determines the possible technology-mix to be utilized at certain sites and actors in tourism. Within it is very interesting to examine the penetration data of the leading social media site as well, as this describes the common approach towards the community based, social sites in a country. The numbers show that internet penetration is close to the CEE average in most target countries except for Bulgaria, Romania, and Turkey, where immediate further development is desirable, similarly to Serbia, Macedonia, Montenegro and Albania where fallbacks can also be experienced. Greece as an older EU member also lacks the adequate infrastructure. The role of the social media is very strong in Turkey, Macedonia, Montenegro, etc. In these relatively underdeveloped countries from ICT point of view, the existing users are present in very large numbers in the social space of the internet.

The second basic infrastructural index is the broadband coverage. This makes it possible for visitors to be constantly online while on the move and access the advanced location based ICT services suggested in the latter part of this study.
From the numbers it is clear that the lack of mobile broadband coverage is not a real obstacle in the way of spreading mobile based travel services, except for the Albanian mountains or inner Turkey. The most advanced, 4th generation services are virtually nowhere to be reached in a large scale, this will provide wired speeds in mobile environment once it reaches a better coverage.

![Diagram 8: Broadband penetration in the target countries 2014](image)

*Source of data: European Commission 2012*

Switching over to outcomes directly related to travel, the most important question is whether the travelers are really utilizing the modern conveniences of ICT services or it just remains an unexploited potential.

![Diagram 9: Utilization of ICT concerning travel related issues in the target countries 2014](image)

*Source of data: Google 2014.*
The diagram above shows that almost 80% percent of the travelers in the region utilize ICT sources in the decision phase of purchasing travel related products and services, on the contrary the role in the purchase phase is significantly lower, but raising constantly.

**Diagram 10: How internet effects decision making in the target countries 2014**  
*Source of data: Google 2014.*

Having a closer look at the decision process: the most important online features the clients utilize are the price comparison, and looking for reviews and other unofficial first-hand information sources concerning the chosen firm or destination and of course by browsing they are getting inspiration about their next travel or holiday destination.

**Diagram 11: The main decision drivers of the online environment in the target countries 2014**  
*Source of data: Google 2014.*
The most influential parts of the online environment are of course the brand websites (the direct online presence of the destinations, hotels, attractions), but of course the retailers websites are also important (TDMs, agencies, national travel portals, etc.)

Nevertheless, the traditional offline sources are still very important, ultimately the opinion of the family and friends, or even strangers (although this is commonly communicated over the social media channels) while in store research (travel agencies, tourist information offices, etc.) also play a significant part in this process.

If we make a roundup of the ICT-services utilized by different tourism service providers in the region we get a very complex picture of the sector. In the following diagram the nodes are showing the actual level of utilization of the given technologies, while the connectors are only there to make the whole dataset more picturesque, but the nodes carry the actual content.

The outcome is very ambivalent: It is surprising that having a common website is not evidence in some sectors of the industry. Social media presence is somewhat lower, but still common, together with the option of electronic payments (credit card). In case of online booking options, in some sectors these are quite common, but heritage sites, private accommodations, even destination management organizations do not take it as a must. Agencies are the branch of
tourism with the most expansive utilization of modern ICT, and it is also interesting, that most of all TDMs are utilizing the mobile possibilities

Possible outcomes: the Service Technology Profiles

The most important possible outcome of the research is to define a development path for the target countries in which the ICT solutions play an important role to attract and keep the domestic and foreign visitors.

The changes of attractions as the result of tourism development projects affect the compound of guests, so the need an advanced information system to organize their visit. Worldwide, there are changes in the structure of the tourism, the variety of source markets and the time and duration of the trips, the use of means of transport, the traveler's age and other specificities involved.

In the aftermath of the worldwide financial crisis this requires new approaches and flexible adaptation from the host organization and destination management organizations. New tools have to be utilized and the technical and structural changes are implemented. Only through these factors can be expected that tourism in the area intensifies, maintains the old clientele and - at the same time - encourages new visitors for visit, providing adequate programs, attractions in line with both groups’ interests to close their stay with good impressions, returning, or extending the duration of their visit. (INFOTA, 2015.)

The new approach requires a new methodology and fundamentally changes the implementation of the information system for visitors. It should be noted for the
sake of completeness, that the operation of the existing information systems remain undisturbed, and can work in line with the so far established solutions at tour operators, information points, accommodations and attractions. However, the new system - through its complexity - provides the full range of information for its users. Operation of the proposed system is not exclusive, it does not have to replace the existing ones, and moreover it can even extend their usability, efficiency and income-generating capacity in a measurable way in monetary terms.

The diversity of actors interested in tourism, the wide variety of institutions working in the hospitality industry, the different nature of institutions of tourism education focus on different aspects in terms of attractions. (Grotte J. 2012.) The operating institutions managing the different attractions show an even more colorful picture. Just think of the following:

- Built attractions: castles, palaces, mansions, monuments, temples, statues, crosses, farmhouses, lookouts
- Collections: museums, exhibitions, country houses, theaters, cinemas, shopping, gaming options
- Events: events, festivals, art days, villages and towns, national day, concerts, music days, commemorative events, event organization, gastronomy, wine days
- **Natural values**: nature reserve, national park, botanical garden, protected areas, parks, castles, nature protection area
- **Active tourism**: health, horse riding, nature, hunting, cycling, water tourism

Naturally all the branches mentioned above have an effect on the quality of life and regeneration of the guests. Although, the latter two is in the main focus of this research, as these kind of services have the greatest effect on what we call wellbeing in this context.

The desired system can provide a single, continuous, updated approach, taking all aspects into account. It is possible to provide full-scale information for the guests tailored to their needs, in line with all the possibilities, the information age can provide, suitable for all segments and age cohorts, even providing full accessibility for disabled people, utilizing modern ICT solutions.

The novelty of new system is primarily the covered sources, the methodology of the preparation, collection, compilation and systematic preparation of the information available. We can also call this in short data- and information logistics. During the preparation the involvement of all stakeholders in tourism area mentioned above are expected. The system is designed to ensure the registration of fresh and regularly updated information, and the management of electronic appearance. Information is entered into the system automatically by data interchange with other systems and/or by manual data entry in a unified...
data sheet format with a defined structure. Modification (update, delete, etc.) rights are strictly regulated.

The information received is being grouped based on a variety of criteria reach the user-horse for: advanced search and filtering options help orientation. Users have the option, to create their own collection of the programs, sites, destinations deemed interesting to gather their own list, which can be printed as an itinerary.

If required, bus and train timetables, maps, etc. can also be added to the system, as supplemental services. The system can be expanded with a mobile phone-based audio guide system to which the activation QR codes can be included in the itinerary. For example, a hotel can utilize the available attraction, event, exhibition, and conference and event information in various ways:

- arriving guests can be immediately informed;
- the guests – during their stay – can be constantly notified about the potential attractions in the vicinity based on their custom needs and preferences
- for inquiring, potential guests (planning a trip, booking the accommodation) detailed and accurate program offers can be provided to encourage them to a longer stay
- Returning and regular guests can receive continuous information (e.g. in form of a newsletter service) about the renewing attractions and possibilities.

The ultimate perquisite of the tourism development described above is to develop appropriate communication between the operators and stakeholders. With proper communication the technological and service development processes can be harmonized. The final outcome of this process is to inform the widest possible range of potential clientele.

The supreme result is the development of a more populous, definitely satisfied clientele, who themselves on the one hand will return to the other attractions to visit, to participate in other events, and on the other hand, returning home, they can easily arouse their relatives’ and acquaintances’ interest, since they are continuously able to follow the development of tourist attractions within the region.

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The impacts of the technological environment on the travel habits of Hungarian travelers – the ‘Global Village’

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Ever since the world exits, people have been travelling to participate in different events (e.g. the Olympic Games in ancient times). They want to get to know new cultures, to take care of their health (e.g. Roman bath trips), to learn (e.g. guildsmen) and to gain new experiences. Nowadays tourism is getting the limelight from many aspects: as a result of the positive development of international relations with several countries lifting visa requirements, the European Union liberalizing the Sky-space, and therefore low-cost airlines appeared. When people travel, their first source for information is the Internet. Due to this, a new demand has come into sight for complex, easily available and reliable information. The fast development of Information Technology has changed the tourism industry. New trends, new suppliers (on-line travel agencies, low-cost carriers, budget hotels etc.), ‘new’ well-informed customers appeared on the market. Among the new technologies, internet-based booking systems can be considered most widespread. A new tool appeared in tourism marketing: ‘impersonal’ on-line sale; on-line shopping. In my primary research, I was curious to know if the travelling habits of Hungarian consumers were influenced by the above mentioned phenomena. Keywords: E-tourism, On-line travel agency, Low-cost airline, E-ticket

Introduction

The expansion of the Internet has showed a new direction for stakeholders in tourism, e.g.: for the suppliers of commercial accommodations, catering units, additional products (e.g. insurance, rent-a-car services, money exchange, etc.) as well as transportation companies. A new tool appeared in tourism marketing: the ‘impersonal’ on-line sale; on-line shopping. Since the emergence of the Internet, travel planning (e.g., travel information search and booking) has always been one of the main reasons that people use the Internet (Buhalis 2003). When people travel anywhere these days the first place they look for information is the Internet. Due to this, a new demand has come into sight for complex, easily available and reliable information. As a consequence of today’s accelerated lifestyle, traveling habits have also changed.
Rationale

The goal of my empirical research is to give a complex picture of the different forms of internet’s application during the leisure travel organization. The relevance of the survey in 2009 was provided by the following factors: more and more travel agencies (60%) operate via websites in addition to ’traditional’ printed travel brochures in Hungary. (Source: http://www.piacesprofit.hu/?r=9387)

As of the beginning of January 2008 the International Air Transport Association (IATA) will launch E-tickets for ‘traditional’ airlines. The IATA (International Air Transport Association), which represents international traditional airlines, wanted to put an end to paper-based flight tickets by the end of 2007. It means that all international airlines should have launched the e-ticket from the 1st of January 2008, but due to some technical problems it happened only from the 1st of May in Hungary. (Source: Turizmus Trend 2006/9)

The number of the internet users is constantly increasing. (Source: http://www.nrc.hu/hirek?&news_id=403&page=details&newsprint=I) The turnover of the low-cost airlines in Hungary is growing rapidly. (Source: http://fapadosutazas.hu/cikk/?id=146&r=7)

Due to the rapid changes of the technology, the role of the new online tools like social media and mobile applications formed a very strong influencing power on the customers’ decision making procedure on travelling. As a trend research, in 2013 I’d completed my research with the above mentioned factors.

The launch of Facebook heralded the beginning of a new concept in the online travel experience: sharing. Travelers turned to Facebook (and later Twitter, Four Square, Pinterest, Instagram et al) as a platform to, let's face it, and show off to their ‘friends’ where they had been or were planning to go on holiday. Most consumer-facing travel companies now have a presence on at least one of these networks, allowing them to interact with customers and – still in its relative infancy – make bookings. (Kevin May 2014) (Figure 1)

Using the web to discover and discuss other people's experiences can help you decide where next to take a holiday. It's called ‘Travel 2.0’ by some - a twist on Web 2.0, the name given to websites that are all about social networking, online communities, slick technologies and user-powered content. (Ryan Carson 2006) 42% of online adults use multiple social networking sites, but Facebook remains the platform of choice. (Duggan & Smith 2013) 85% of the Hungarians, between the age of 18-75 who are using internet, have profile on the FaceBook, Based on
Though not directly responsible for the evolution of online travel the launch of the Apple IPhone- giving the users access to the web via their handsets- had a huge influence on what became the start of travel services on mobile devices. (Kevin May 2014) In the end of the year 2013, 29% (2.4 million) of the Hungarian adults- mainly young educated men from Budapest- had smartphones, based on the research of eNET-Telekom. 60% of them use the smartphones for writing emails, searching on the internet and using social media sites, mainly Facebook. (http://www.enet.hu/hirek/mar-okostelefon-felhasznalo-a-magyar-lakossag-tobb-mint-%C2%BC-e/?lang=hu)

**Research Method**

Before the beginning of my researches I had defined those goals of examination along my researches went by. To be able to fulfill my goal, with the help of secondary and primary researches I’ve examined: the impacts of the tools of information and communication technologies on the system of tourism, the phenomena of E-tourism in the world and Hungary, the usage of the appliances of E-marketing in tourism, and through the attitude of the customers the differences
between the old and new customers, and the relations between the suppliers of the tourism industry and the new technologies.

Although the application of the internet is significant in the tourism industry, there is no relevance source (literature) in Hungary which ensures the importance of my researches. On the demand side: the concentrated tourism market, I’ve chosen the quantitative research method and within that the format of the questionnaire. In my primary research, I was curious to know if the travelling habits of the Hungarian consumers were influenced by the above mentioned phenomena in the year of 2009 and whether further changes occurred in the year of 2013 compared to 2009. Travel 2009, the 32nd Travel Expo here in Budapest, ensured the opportunity for the 40000 visitors; Travel 2013, the 36th Travel Expo ensured the opportunity for the 45000 visitors to meet numerous traditional and online travel agencies. My survey was conducted during the Travel Expo.

**The questionnaire**

In my research I’ve examined the different leisure travel organization habits of the customers, the relations between travel information, the internet and the accessibility of the travel services, and the attitude of the customers to the off- and online travel agencies’ services. A sample from the concentrated tourism market: Travel Expo 2009 and 2013. The survey was administered among 1500 visitors between the ages of 14-70.

**The results of the field research**

Henceforward I will evaluate the answers based on the topic of the leisure travel organization. The survey was administered among 1500 (N=1500) visitors between the ages of 14-70. Demographical features (Table 1)

As we can see it on the table, during the past 4 years the following significant changes occurred in the demographic features. Focusing on the age not too many differences happened. Among the participants, the biggest difference was showed in the secondary school category in the level of education. It is also remarkable that more and more people from the countryside had participated on the Travel Expo.

**General information about the travelling habits of the Hungarian travelers**

Including the questions, such as: 'How often do you travel?', 'What factors influence the frequency of your travelling?', 'What is the motivation behind your trip?' (More motivations can be ticked) 'Who organizes your trip?'

In 2009, 40% of the visitors travel once a year, 32% travel twice a year, 18% three times a year and the remaining 10% twelve times a year. They were those who
travel twelve times a year; mainly those, who visit their friends and families, and who live in the countryside. In 2013, 33% of the visitors travel once a year, 30% travel twice a year, 18% (the same in 2009) three times a year 6% twelve times a year, and the remaining 4% not even once a year. This figure (4%) was the biggest difference between 2009 and 2013.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2009 (number of visitors)</th>
<th>2013 (number of visitors)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Men</td>
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<td>597</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 Demographical features in 2009 and 2013

I was interested in about the factors, which influence the frequency of the Hungarian travelers’ travelling. The result was not surprising. Most of our visitors cannot afford travelling quite often because of the lack of money, on the other hand because of the decreased free time, and it seems that fashion does not play any role in their frequency of travelling. In the category of other, some consumers have mentioned the season, the mood, the concrete program – the supply, and the good company in 2009, but in 2013 the effect of the *economic crisis* also appeared. Due to the economic crisis the Hungarian tourists either cut down the costs of travelling with choosing lower category of accommodation, or make the length of the trip shorter.
In both years the most popular motivations were:

- 1. Holiday - on the first place: longer period (1-2 weeks), mainly summer time, when most of the children are free of school,
- 2. City tours: long-week ends, many times due to the national holidays, the employees do not need to ask for days off, therefore the Hungarian travel agencies always put together special packages for this period.
- 3. VFR – Visiting Friends and Relatives: in Hungary everything (job opportunities, business, entertainment facilities, etc.) is very much concentrated on the capital Budapest, so the result is very understandable.
- 4. Wellness – Hungary is very famous about her spas, thermal- and wellness treatments, and mainly during the national holidays, the tourists are very keen on these places. The other leisure motivations were: the sport, language course, and the religion, with not too many answers.

In 2009 and in 2013 as well most of the travelers organize their trips mainly themselves, secondly the travel agency follows, thirdly the family. There were no significant changes in the figures.

**Specific information about the travelling habits of the Hungarian travelers in coherence with the internet**

Including the questions, such as: 'If you go to a travel agency (offline), what are the services you take? 'Do you have a favorite travel agency? Do you use Internet for finding travel information? 'If you organize your trip on your own, which websites do you use? Do you read the travel Forum, when you organize your trip? Have you ever ordered any tourist services through an off or on-line travel agency?'

If the Hungarians using offline travel agencies for their trips they buy the following services: 1. Accommodation, 2. Insurance, 3. Program, 4. Flight ticket, 5. Coach ticket, 6. Car rental, 7. Money exchange, 8. Package tour, 9. Rail ticket Both years 75% of the travelers do not have any favorite travel agencies. The remaining 25% (mainly the age group above 50) named the well-known Hungarian travel agencies with reasons, like: reliable, well-known, reasonable prices, good standard of services, great programs, well-prepared tour guides, good personal experiences. Most of the travelers answered their own experiences as the most important aspect here. Then it was followed by the quality of the services and then the price, and at last but not least the opinions of their friends play important influencing factors in these decision making procedures. From the answers it turned out that most of the travelers are not able to make a difference between an on-line travel agency and an off-line travel agency with web site. Unfortunately, it also turned out that the
visitors did not have enough information about the national on-line travel agencies e.g.: Hurranayaralunk.hu; Go.hu.

In 2009, 83% of the travelers used the Internet for finding travel information. In 2013 was not just higher this number (92%), but in this year the visitors highlighted the role of the social media, mainly Facebook, and the mobile devices as influencing factors in their decision making process. In both years the number one website among the travelers’ preferences is the Google, which is followed by the different Internet portals like the www.startlap.hu especially the sites of lap.hu; and the Information providers like the www.dunakanyar.hu, or the websites of a concrete destination. Here below are the results in each category (Table2 the websites the travelers use for finding travel information).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Websites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. For sights</td>
<td><a href="http://www.tourinform.hu">www.tourinform.hu</a>; the website of a concrete country; <a href="http://www.ithon.hu">www.ithon.hu</a>; the website of a concrete city; <a href="http://www.startlap.com">www.startlap.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. For car rental</td>
<td><a href="http://www.hertz.com">www.hertz.com</a>; <a href="http://www.avis.hu">www.avis.hu</a>; <a href="http://www.foxautorent.hu">www.foxautorent.hu</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Table 2 The websites the travelers use for finding travel information |

Focusing on the airlines’ websites, we can conclude that the Hungarian consumers do know many low-cost airlines, even more than traditional ones. Unfortunately, the Hungarian National Airline: MALEV bankrupt in 2012. The Internet and e-business have re-regulated the market of air transportation as well. New competitors, the low-cost carriers appeared, such as the EasyJet, Germanwings, Ryanair, Wizzair, etc. The new companies have changed the life of traditional airlines, and gained new customers (Grotte 2008). It was not surprising that almost everybody wrote about the websites of MAV (Hungarian State Railways Private
Company by Shares) and VOLÁN (National Coach Company) in the category of time schedules.

In 2009 for the question ’Have you ever ordered any touristic services through an offline travel agency’s website?’ The number of the answers were quite surprising: Yes, I’ve already ordered: 31.5% of the visitors, No, I have not: 62% of the visitors, No answers: 6.4% of the visitors. In 2013, Yes, I’ve already ordered: 33% of the visitors, No, I have not: 54% of the visitors, No answers: 12.5% visitors. It seems that the Hungarians are still afraid of buying travel services online, in spite of the fact that more and more customers are using the online tools for travel organization! On the other hand, the Hungarians still do not know the differences between the offline and online travel agency.

In 2009 52% of the travelers do read the travel Forum, 44% do not, altogether 1447 visitors answered to this question. In 2013 most of the tourists read the TripAdvisor, and some of them reading blogs as well. Most of the travelers think that an ideal on-line travel agency has an up-to-date website, which should contain many reliable, clear information with illustrations and pictures; the work on the website should be easy to manage, e.g.: to be able to pay out the services by credit card through the Internet. They believe that good price equals to good travel agency, being fast is important, and that transparency is significant.

In 2009 and 2013 for the question ’Have you ever ordered any tourist services through an on-line travel agency?’ We got the following answers (See Table 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>2009 Visitors</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, I have</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, never</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, but I’m going to</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 ‘Have you ever ordered any tourist services through an on-line travel agency?’

62 visitors did not answer at all in 2009. These are the services what the travelers have ordered. 1: Accommodation, 2: Flight ticket, 3: Insurance, 4: Program, 5: Package tour, 6: Ski pass 7: Car rental.


In 2013, 56% of the visitors have ordered and paid online, for travel services. Comparing to the year of 2009 it is a huge development. It means, that during the
past 4 years, the visitors who said in 2009 (36%) “No, but I’m going to’, started to buy travel services online. The difference between 2009 and 2013 in this case is about 38%! That also means that the Hungarian travelers are much more comfortable with the usage of the touristic services in the online environment. The other reason is the e-ticket. One of the most important changes is that the paper-based flight ticket will be replaced by the e-ticket. It is known that on a yearly basis 300 million paper-based tickets are issued, and they cost 10 USD each. On the other hand, e-tickets cost only one dollar. The e-ticket is a special electronic code, which is sent by the airline when the traveler has booked and paid the flight ticket by credit card through the Internet. The use of e-tickets saves 3 billion dollars every year for international air transport. This special method of issuing tickets is not just cheaper, and faster than the traditional one, but it has a positive impact on the environment as well. (Horváth 2006, 2007)

The cost of tours can be high; consequently, good prices always play an important role in the planning and selection of a holiday destination. Nowadays on-line travel agencies with their good prices and special travel packages come before traditional or off-line travel agencies in popularity. Most off-line or traditional travel agencies have their own websites already. Although, not every traditional travel agencies’ websites allow customers to ‘buy’, trend-predictions show that the number of ‘information provider’ websites decrease, and on-line sales increase (Grotte - Veres 2009).

**Conclusions**

The Internet is the most important innovation since the development of the printing press (Hoffman 2000). The expression: ‘Global Village’ describes how the globe has been contracted into a village by electric technology.(McLuhan 1964). Tourism is very information-intensive and information is often dubbed the ‘life-blood’ or ‘cement’ of the industry which holds together the different producers within the travel industry - airlines, tour operators, travel agencies, attractions, car rental, cruise lines, and other supplies. (Zhenhua Liu, 2000)

It is a well-known fact that the appearance of the internet has fundamentally changed the whole tourism market. New trends, new suppliers (on-line travel agencies, low-cost carriers, etc.) have showed up in the sector. The appearance of low-cost airlines in Hungary (2003), ensured the chances for those who could not afford to use this fast and comfortable means of transportation because of their low income. In my above written primary research, I was curious whether the travelling habits of the Hungarian travelers have been influenced by the Internet. Here are the conclusions:
Although the tourism market has changed lately, and new suppliers offer good prices, most of the Hungarian travelers still cannot afford themselves more than one trip a year, because of the lack of money on the first place or the lack of free time. Their main motivation for travelling is naturally the holiday to relax, but they are also interested in about the different cultures and sights of a capital city, mainly it appeared among those Hungarians who ticked semi-annual at the frequency of traveling therefore stands the city tour on the second place. Many people have friends and relatives, who are living in another city or country apart from their own, so visiting friends and relatives became the third important motivation among those who are traveling quarterly.

Because of the lack of money, most of the travelers organize their trips on their own; and do not use the services of a travel agency, but use the internet to find the tourist information. From my primary research it is also turned out, that the Hungarian travelers cannot make a difference between an online travel agency and an offline travel agency with website. Furthermore, it is even more disappointing that many of the travelers have never booked any services through the internet at all. Although, on-line tourism is getting more and more popular among the travelers, it seems that the Hungarians are still afraid of using the services of an online travel agency, which can be explained with the lack of money and credit card.

In the past 25 years many changes occurred in our technological environment. The appearance of the Internet was just the beginning. Due to the new tools of the online environment, we had started to manage our travelling in a different way.

We’d learned how to book accommodations online, and travelling by the websites of the Online Travel Agencies. We had to realize that paper based flight tickets no more exist, but e-ticket. We became good tour organizers by reading the travel blogs and reviews. According to Carson (2006) in the future, we can expect to see more of these ‘mash-ups’ - mixing maps with reviews, ratings, photos and services (car rental, hotels etc.). More applications will be built that take advantage of mobile phones.

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